

AMERICAN



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AMERICAN RAILROAD JOURNAL, &c.

NEW-YORK, DECEMBER 15, 1832.

In this number of the Journal will be found a part of the report of JAMES P. STABLER, Esq. Superintendent of Construction upon the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. This document, together with that of C. W. EVER, Esq. Superintendent of Graduation and Masonry, which we have published already, will be found eminently useful to engineers, and others, interested in, or engaged upon Railroads, as they enter into all the minute detail of practical operations; and their own estimates may be compared to and judged of by these, the result of experience.

It is gratifying to learn, as Mr. Stabler observes, from the experience of two severe winters, during which a part of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad has been in operation, that the apprehensions entertained by many of derangements of the road by the severe frosts of our winters, and consequently of heavy expenditures for repairs, are groundless.

The success of this stupendous work, and other Railroads now in a course of construction, and upon so many different plans, will render the undertaking of such enterprizes much less hazardous than they have heretofore been considered. We hope to see, during the next summer, active operations upon our own great Western Railroad to Lake Erie. It is a work of so much importance to the growing trade of this city, as well as to the fertile west, that another year should not pass without a thorough survey of the route, and a commencement of the work.

We regret the necessity of dividing these documents, but as many of them are lengthy, and would nearly or quite fill that part of the Journal devoted to this subject, justice to a part of our readers, who do not feel so great an interest in railroads as we do, requires us to give variety in each number.

We complete, this week, the publication of Mr. M'Adam's examination by the committee, which has been continued in the four preceding numbers, upon the subject of making and repairing roads,—and would ask for it an attentive perusal, as it will, we think, give some new ideas upon a subject of great interest to a large proportion of this community—for there are very few indeed, whose interests and convenience would not be promoted by good roads.

The most important points in which his mode differs from others in common use are, first, the preparation of the *bed* to receive the covering—second, the size of the material of which that covering is composed—third, the mode of applying it—and fourth, the shape of the road when completed.

The common mode has been, and still is, we believe, to dig a trench of the width of the road to be filled with large stone, which is usually covered with stone of smaller dimensions. Mr. M'Adam raises the bed in the centre, that the water, if any should pass through the covering, may pass off into the ditch, instead of finding its way into the ground and thereby rendering it soft and causing the materials to sink and become uneven on the surface. The bed is raised by the removal of the earth from the ditches, which are made of such depth as will prevent the water from reaching the level of the road bed. By this mode, the earth which forms the bed of the road is kept dry, and is therefore capable of sustaining almost any load.

The size, and mode of applying the materials, are also matters which require attention. Upon these points he dwells with much emphasis. "There should not be a stone," he says, "in the road over six ounces in weight, and the great proportion will be much smaller; then they should be applied in layers of about three inches in thickness, not to exceed that, and

about three or four courses, or nine to twelve inches will be sufficient to sustain any weight."

He next dwells upon the *shape* of the road. In this part of road-making our countrymen err as much as in any other. Our roads are generally so much higher in the centre than at the side, that it is often hazardous for carriages to pass each other; and in consequence of their shape, the whole travel, or nearly so, is upon one track, instead of on every part, as it should be, and therefore they are more frequently out of repair. Mr. M'Adam says, "I consider that roads should be made as flat as possible with regard to allowing the water to run off. I have generally made roads of eighteen feet wide about three inches higher in the centre than at the sides." We will not, however, occupy the time of our readers with our remarks, when they can have the whole subject before them by referring to the last four numbers of the Journal.

NOTE. In order to give the President's Proclamation entire, and at the earliest period, we are obliged to omit much interesting matter which was intended for this number. In consequence of the *first form* having been worked off before the Proclamation was received, we are compelled to divide it—yet the inconvenience of finding it in different parts of the same paper, is not equal to the intervention of a week.

LOCOMOTIVE ENGINE.—We yesterday, (says the Lexington Reporter of the 5th inst.) had the pleasure of examining, at the machine-shop of Mr. Bruen, a new Locomotive Steam Engine, constructed for the Lexington and Ohio Railroad Company. As it is the first that we ever saw, we cannot speak of its merits, in comparison with those now in use on the Railroads of England and the United States; but we learn from those better acquainted with these matters, that Mr. Bruen has invented several valuable improvements in the form and machinery of the Engine, together with its appurtenances, which it is thought will be of great service in the application of steam power to Railroads. The engine is lighter by about two-thirds than those of the same power now in use on the eastern Railroads; the workmanship cannot well be surpassed; and we look forward with impatience for its completion, and the testing of its powers by experiment.

Extracts from J. Loudon M'Adam's Examination before a Committee of the House of Commons, in the year 1819—continued.

What width would you in general recommend for laying materials on a turnpike road?—That must depend upon the situation. Near

great towns roads of course ought to be wider than farther in the country. Roads near great towns ought not to be less than thirty or forty feet wide, but at a distance from great towns it

would be waste of land to make them so wide.

You mean a breadth of thirty feet actual road?—Yes. The access to Bristol for a distance of about three miles, if we had room between the hedges, I would make about thirty feet wide. Between Bath and Bristol I should wish to see the road wide all the way, because it is only the distance of twelve miles between two large cities.

In what way do you make the water-courses at the sides of the road; I ask that question, having observed the farmers, in exercising their power of cleaning out their ditches, dig them to such a depth as to render them dangerous to be passed at night?—I always wished the ditch to be so dug as that the materials of the road should be three or four inches above the level of the water in the ditch, and to that point we endeavor to bring the farmers, but they are very unwilling to clean the ditches at any time when called upon, and when they do it, if they find vegetable mould in any quantity at the bottom of the ditch, they will prosecute their inquiry much deeper than is useful, or proper for safety.

Do you consider you have power by law, at present, for preventing that?—Yes; because the law says, they are to clean them out according to the directions of the surveyors.

In your experience have you found any impediment to the improvement of the roads, from a want of power in the proprietors of different navigations to lower their tolls for conveying materials?—I have found in the river Lea navigation, that the trustees have no power to lower their tolls which were imposed by act of parliament upon merchandize, and therefore, it operated in a great measure as a prohibition to carry materials upon that river.

Do you consider it would be to the interest of the proprietors to allow materials to be carried on their navigations at a lower rate than they are empowered by law?—Yes, if they could.

Do you know any similar instances as applicable to canals?—I don't know an instance with respect to canal trusts, but there is an instance with respect to the Bath river at Bristol. No mitigation of the present rate of duty on that river can take place if objected to by any one proprietor, and therefore we have found great difficulty in carrying materials on the Bath river. In one particular place we have been entirely precluded from carrying any.

Have you found any impediment to the improvement of roads arising from the conditions upon which materials are permitted to be conveyed from one parish to another?—Yes; I found that in several cases in the Bristol district. One very strong instance occurred near Keynsham; we had a quarry close to the edge of one parish, and we could not carry the stones from it to the distance of ten yards, without the process of going to the magistrates.

Did you in that case make application to the magistrates?—I did intend to make application, but before I made that application, I found in the very next field, belonging to the same farmer, and in the parish where we required them, the necessary materials, and I was under the necessity of opening both the fields, to the detriment of the farmer's landlord I am persuaded.

Do you know an instance of such an application as that to which you have alluded having been made to the magistrates, and having been refused?—No, I do not.

Do you think that a great inconvenience and loss of time would be saved if that necessity of

application was dispensed with?—It certainly is a great inconvenience, and creates a great deal of heart-burning in the country, and much dispute. I think the commissioners would very seldom be disposed to carry materials from one parish to another, unless for the general public good.

What depth of solid materials would you think it right to put upon a road, in order to repair it properly?—I should think ten inches of well consolidated materials is equal to carry anything.

That is, provided the substratum is sound?—No; I should not care whether the substratum was soft or hard; I should rather prefer a soft one to a hard one.

You don't mean you would prefer a bog?—If it was not such a bog as would not allow a man to walk over, I should prefer it.

What advantage is derived from the substrata not being perfectly solid?—I think, when a road is placed upon a hard substance, such as a rock, the road wears much sooner than when placed on a soft substance.

But must not the draught of a carriage be much greater on a road which has a very soft foundation, than over one which is a rocky foundation?—I think the difference would be very little indeed, because the yield of a good road on a soft foundation is not perceptible.

To use the expression to which you have alluded, as being used by the coachmen, would a carriage run so true upon a road, the foundation of which was soft, as upon one of which the foundation was hard?—If the road be very good, and very well made, it will be so solid, and so hard, as to make no difference. And I will give the Committee a strong instance of that, in the knowledge of many gentlemen here. The road in Somersetshire, between Bridgewater and Cross, is mostly over a morass, which is so extremely soft that, when you ride in a carriage along the road, you see the water tremble in the ditches on each side; and after there has been a slight frost, the vibration of the water from the carriage on the road will be so great as to break the young ice. The road is partly in the Bristol district. I think there is about seven miles of it, and at the end of those seven miles, we come directly on the limestone rock. I think we have about five or six miles of this rocky road immediately succeeding the morass; and being curious to know what the wear was, I had a very exact account kept, not very lately, but I think the difference is as five to seven in the expenditure of the materials on the soft and hard.

Do you mean seven on the hard and five on the soft?—Yes.

And yet the hard road is more open to the effects of the sun and air than the soft road?—It certainly lies higher.

Have you ever inquired of the coachmen, on which of those two descriptions of roads the carriages run the lightest?—Yes, I have; and I have found that there is no difference, if the road be equally smooth on the surface, whether it be placed on the soft ground or hard.

But in forming a road over a morass, would you bottom the road with small or large stones?—I never use large stones on the bottom of a road; I would not put a large stone in any part of it.

In forming a road across a morass, would you not put some sort of intermediate material between the bog and the stone?—No, never.

Would you not put faggots?—No, no faggots. How small would you use the stones?—Not to exceed six ounces in weight.

Have you not found that a foundation of bog sinks?—No, not a bit of the road sinks; and we have the same thickness of materials on the one as on the other. If a road be made smooth and solid it will be one mass, and the effect of the substrata, whether clay or sand, can never be felt in effect by carriages going over the road; because a road well made unites itself into a body like a piece of timber or a board.

In making a road under these circumstances,

do you make the whole of the depth of materials at once?—No, I prefer making a road in three times.

Three different times?—Yes.

To what size would you break the hard materials?—To the size of six ounces weight.

Do you not think that is an indefinite criterion; had you not better mention the size?—No; I did imagine myself that the difference existed to which you allude, and I have weighed six ounces of different substances, and am confident there is little difference in appearance and none in effect; I think that none ought to exceed six ounces; I hold six ounces to be the maximum size. If you made the road of all six-ounce stones it would be a rough road; but it is impossible but that the greater part of the stones must be under that size.

Do you find a measure or ring through which the stones will pass, a good method of regulating their size?—That is a very good way, but I always make my surveyors carry a pair of scales and a six ounce weight in their pocket, and when they come to a heap of stones, they weigh one or two of the largest, and if they are reasonably about that weight they will do; it is impossible to make them come exactly to it. I would beg leave to say, in all cases of laying new materials upon an old road, I recommend loosening the surface with a pickaxe a very little, so as to allow the new materials to unite with the old, otherwise the new materials being laid on the hard surface never unite, but get kicked about, and are lost to the roads; wherever new materials are to be put down upon an old road I recommend a little loosening; but that I don't call lifting.

Have you stated what thickness of new materials you would lay down on an old road?—I should consider an old road would not want new materials if it had ten inches of materials before, but I should only pick up the materials, and break the large stones; and if there were any want of materials, I would lay on as much as would bring it up to somewhere about the ten inches.

Would you prefer doing that in dry weather or in wet weather?—In wet weather, always; I always prefer mending a road in weather not very dry.

Are you of opinion that any alteration of the present law, either in regard to the repeal of the present regulations or the enactment of new ones, could advantageously take place in regard to the shape of the wheels, and the allowance of weight to be carried in waggons and carts? I am of opinion that the descriptions of wheels given in all the acts of parliament in the last sessions, are the most convenient and useful; and I have thought of the matter very much, without being able to suggest any alteration profitable to the public. With respect to weights, I consider there are very great difficulties in that business. We have weighing machines in the neighborhood I now am in, and I am persuaded in many instances that they are made instruments of oppression, and in a great many cases the means of committing very great fraud on the commissioners and others; and if some method could be fallen upon by which weighing machines might be dispensed with altogether, and the road reasonably protected, I should think it a very great public advantage. In the new Bristol Act I have proposed to the commissioners that they should submit to parliament to lay a toll duty upon the number of horses in a progressive ratio, so as to compel those people who offend to bring in their hands the penalty in the shape of toll; I think it would prevent a great deal of that system of entering into combinations between the toll collectors and the waggoners, which is carried on to a great extent.

Do you think that if horses in narrow wheeled waggons were obliged to draw otherwise than at length, it would afford any protection to the road?—Yes.

Has not the practice of making horses draw at length very much a tendency to make the horses follow one track, be the road

ever so good!—Yes; and I must mention to the Committee, that the feet of horses on ill-made wagon which comes out of Bristol, that does more injury to our roads than all the travelling of the day besides.

Are you of opinion that any benefit arises from those broad wheeled wagons, which would justify their total exemption from tolls? None at all.

Does the answer you have given to the committee relative to the effect of great weights, apply equally to roads made with gravel, as well as broken stone?—I mean it to apply to all well made roads, whether of gravel or of other materials.

You mean after the road is smooth and solid? Yes.

But with regard to a new road, are you not of opinion that the materials are crushed and worn out by a great weight?—Yes; no doubt that is so on a new-made road, and one of those wagons with the wheels made conical, would crush a greater proportion of stone than it ought to do.

Do you not conceive that the state of the turnpike roads would be improved by not allowing any wagons to carry more weight than four tons?—I don't know that that would make any great difference under good management. I think the defect lies in a want of science in road-making.

Letter from Mr. Fromont to the Committee of the House of Commons, relative to Mr. M'Adam's Mode of Repairing Roads.

Mr. Fromont being prevented by an accident from attending the Committee, it was resolved that the following letter be entered on the Minutes:

THATCHAM, May, 1819.

Gentlemen,—I think it a duty incumbent on me to present to you my opinion respecting Mr. M'Adam's plan of Repairing and Improving Turnpike Roads. From what I have noticed of his improvement on different parts of the Bath Road, on which I am at present working different coaches a distance of above 500 miles per day, I think his plan altogether,—i. e. first, of screening and cleansing the gravel, and breaking the stones; secondly, of preparing the road to receive it; and thirdly, of laying it on the road,—is the best and safest method I have ever seen in the course of fifty years' experience in the coach and wagon business. I have formerly had several accidents happen from the gravel being laid too thick and very high in the middle of the road, and have killed some hundreds of horses (extra) in pulling through it; and I think

I may venture to say, that if Mr. M'Adam's plan was adopted generally throughout the kingdom, in the course of a short time the public would be enabled to travel with much greater ease and safety, and at nearly one-third less of expense; at all events I am convinced that nearly one-third less labor is required to work a fast coach over part of the road between Reading and London, where M'Adam's plan has been adopted, than there is over other parts of the road where they still continue the old plan. In short, my opinion may be given in a few words: his plan, if adopted generally, will cause the traveller to find easier, safer, and more expeditious travelling, and the owners of horses a diminution of nearly one-third of the original labor.

I am, Gentlemen, with respect, your most obedient servant,

EDWARD FROMONT.

[From the London Mechanics' Magazine.]

NEW STEAM CARRIAGE.

SIR: Having seen a clear and mathematical demonstration in the Mechanics' Magazine of the impossibility of a steam carriage going up hill on common roads, I beg to inform you that yesterday I went on such a carriage—Invented and constructed by Colonel Macerone and Mr. John Squire—six miles back on the Harrow-road, up and down several sharp and long hills, in less than one hour. It run at more than eight miles the hour up the steepest hills; and

on the levels, when the road was clear, at more than sixteen. The steam was so abundant as to be blowing away at the safety valve the whole of the journey. The boiler is, I understand, a new combination of tubes, perfectly free from the defects and objections attaching to those made by Gurney and others, utterly incapable of doing mischief, even if it were to burst. The steam is usually at a pressure of 150 lbs. to the inch: but the boiler has stood 1000 lbs. to the square inch. The boiler weighs only 1700 lbs.; the whole carriage about two tons and a quarter. What will "Saxula" say to this? He may have a ride any day at 3 o'clock, by calling at No. 19 Wharf, Paddington green.

Your obedient servant, V. S.

P. S. The above carriage is the *first* constructed on a *new* principle. They tell me that the next built will have at least one-third more power, with the same bulk and weight.

AIR CARRIAGE.—A gentleman in the neighborhood of Northampton having constructed a small model for applying the power of condensed air to lathes, &c. and hearing that Mr. Fordham, of London, had succeeded in producing a more powerful engine for propelling carriages, communicated with Mr. Fordham on the subject, the result of which will be interesting to scientific men. Mr. Fordham's ingenious plan consists of two air-cylinders, with connecting rods, communicating the power of cranks to the wheels. The recipients may be placed under the axle, or in the body of the carriage. When the air is condensed into the recipients, it will remain there for months with unimpaired elasticity. Each recipient is 12 inches in diameter by 54 inches long; capacity 34 by 10 feet, into which 170 cubic feet of air may be compressed. The expense of drawing coaches by horse is about two shillings per mile, and by condensed air it would probably be sixpence, and in many cases only four pence. In 1823, the number of miles run by the stage-coaches in England, exclusive of the mails, was 33,199,000; and the probable number of miles run by stage coaches, including the mails, is annually about 40,530,000. The cost of the horse-keep to the country is about 4,000,000*l.* per annum, of which 3,000,000*l.* may be saved, and in making this saving not a man need be thrown out of employment, and a very improved method of travelling would be introduced. It is probable steam carriages will succeed eventually, but gentlemen will, no doubt, prefer a clean and elegant air-carriage to one propelled by steam.—[Northampton Free Press.]

STEEL SUSPENSION BRIDGE.—Over the Danube, near Vienna, a suspension bridge of steel has been lately erected by M. Ignace Von Mitis. The span is 234 feet English, and the versed sine 15 feet. A saving of one half in the total weight is calculated to have been effected by the employment of steel instead of iron; the strength also is much greater. All the steel used in this bridge was manufactured immediately from decarbonated cast iron in Styria.

NEW PERCUSSION GUN.—At the Royal Institution, recently, Mr. Farraday produced a new fowling-piece, possessing a curious principle of percussion. This gun is the invention of Mr. Wilkinson, conjointly with Mr. Moser, who has obtained a patent for it. The principle consists in the introduction of the priming into the barrel, and firing it in that situation at the *top* of the powder. The priming being fixed in the wadding or shot cartridge, is struck by a fine steel pin, which passes through a sheath or tube, surrounded by the gunpowder; and the advantages are, that no operation of priming is required, that being done in the act of loading; there is no flash or smoke, it is perfectly waterproof, and not liable to miss fire; and the whole charge of powder must be ignited, in consequence of being fired from the top and exactly in the centre.

Sixth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Construction of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.
Office of Construction, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad,
September 30th, 1832.

To PHILIP E. THOMAS, President &c.

The following report of the operations of the department of Construction, for the past year, is respectfully submitted.

The Fifth Annual Report to the Stockholders having been made during the unfinished state of a large portion of the work then under contract, and at a time when from other causes it was impracticable to enter as fully into a detail of the transactions of this department as might have been desirable, only so much of these operations were embraced in that Report, as was necessary to show the general progress of the work up to that period. As, however, the work of *construction* intended to be completed during the present season, is now finished, and the facts and results to be derived from the portions actually constructed during the year are in some measure dependent upon, and connected with, the parts executed prior to that time, it will be necessary in order to attain the knowledge of these results, to review some of the transactions relative to laying the rails, from the commencement of the work.

At the time when the Fourth Annual Report was made, a single track, and part of the second track, had been laid from the city of Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills. A careful, and it is believed, accurate statement, was then given of the principal items entering into the cost of that work, and the various results stated, so far as it regarded the parts laid on wood sleepers and stone blocks. The stone road in the valley of the Patapsco, constituting the greater portion of the track remaining to be laid, although in progress, was not then finished, and some additional work was required on the parts laid with wood. The stone track on the second and third divisions not having been completed by the 1st of October, 1831, the cost of that on the first division was not then given,—and for the same reason, the precise cost of the wood work laid subsequently to the publication of the Fourth Annual Report, was not stated in the Fifth Annual Report.

The tracks laid during the past year will now be reported, and considered in connection with the other parts of the railway.

A revision of the former statements, applicable only to a small portion of the work, and a recurrence to some of the leading circumstances connected with the laying of the rails, is deemed not only essential in relation to the cost of the work which has already been executed, but desirable, for reasons connected with the future operations of the Company.

The expenditures upon a small portion of the railway, and those confined to a very limited extent of country, cannot afford as certain data for the future estimates of cost, as when the estimates are based upon the performance of a large extent of work—executed under a greater variety of circumstances, and passing through sections of country affording varied facilities for construction. All these causes, and others which might be mentioned, have a direct influence upon the necessary expenditures; in consequence of which, certain items of cost stated in a former Report will be seen to vary somewhat from the present. Some will be augmented, whilst others are diminished, and there will be included some charges not before stated. Changes have also been made in the form of certain parts of the work, which experience has suggested as proper; and these again have sometimes added to the expense, whilst in other instances they have decreased it. The average cost per mile will, however, be found to approximate nearer to that sum which may in future be found requisite for the construction of the railway in its further progress to the Ohio, than if the estimate had been founded upon a more limited extent of operations.

The whole length of a single track now laid

upon the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, exclusive of the sidings at the several depots at Baltimore and Ellicott's Mills, is as follows:

In the city of Baltimore, commencing at the junction of Stiles and President-streets, Old Town, uniting with the track in Pratt-street, at the intersection of President-street, and terminating at the depot at the west end of Pratt-street, and including a portion of second track laid at the junction of the city track with the main stem, there has been laid $1\frac{7}{10}$ miles.

On the City and first Divisions, including a siding on the first division, $14\frac{17}{100}$ miles, laid on sleepers, $5\frac{3}{10}$ miles on stone blocks, and $6\frac{9}{10}$ miles of the track laid with stone sills.

On the Second Division, there has been laid $22\frac{3}{10}$ miles of the stone track, and $1\frac{9}{10}$ miles of wood track.

On the Third Division, the extent of stone track is less than was intended to have been laid, and amounts to $5\frac{1}{10}$ miles. The residue on that Division is laid with wood, on sleepers, and includes $29\frac{21}{100}$ miles of single track. The double track on the Fourth Division is laid with string pieces and sleepers, and is equal to $28\frac{9}{10}$ miles of single track. About $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles of this track is laid with log timber, procured from the adjacent country, and used in place of the six-inch scantling. One mile of the track on the same division is laid with the six-inch scantling, having the sleepers laid three feet apart from centre to centre, instead of four feet, the distance adopted for the other parts of the road.

On the Fifth Division, a single track has been completed, and several detached portions of the second track are also laid upon this division, amounting to $\frac{84}{100}$ miles, making the aggregate length of single track now laid, $11\frac{94}{100}$ miles; and leaving $10\frac{27}{100}$ miles of single track yet to be laid on that Division.

The lateral road to Frederick consists of a single track, which, with the western fork that connects it with the main stem in a direction towards the Point of Rocks, a siding mid-way between the main stem and Frederick, together with a small portion of the second and third tracks laid in the depot lot at the latter place, includes $4\frac{29}{100}$ miles of single track.

The total amount of single track of wood Railway laid on sleepers, is therefore $89\frac{35}{100}$ miles; on stone blocks $5\frac{23}{100}$ miles,—and the aggregate length of stone track laid on the first, second, and third divisions, is $33\frac{81}{100}$ miles, exclusive of the sidings and additional tracks laid at the depots at Baltimore and Ellicott's mills.

From the foregoing lengths of single track, it is proposed to make a statement of the cost incurred on the wood and stone railway, respectively, ascertained from the known expenditures on parts of the work, and from estimates on other parts derived from data considered so nearly correct as to make no important difference in the general result. The estimates referred to are for parts of the cost of the first or northern track laid on the city division. These expenditures were not accounted for with the requisite details, to admit of their being placed under the several heads as adopted for the work since executed. The variation between the estimated and actual cost will be more in the *distribution* of the several sums amongst the respective parts, than in the aggregate amount. This track being formed to suit the flanges on the outside of the rails, required an alteration when the change for the position of the flanges was made. The actual expenses of that alteration are now included under the proper heads in the general cost.

But there are items of expenditure applicable to no other purpose than the construction of the railway, and these being known, constitute a specific charge against that part of the work. Amongst these items are included, payment and allowances to contractors—local superintendence—engineers' wages—services of vane bearers and axe-men—agents for hauling materials—hauling materials, tools, implements, and materials of particular descriptions—together with other, and contingent expenditures

applicable to certain defined portions of the construction.*

There are also charges for services rendered in general superintendance—for stationary—and other contingent disbursements, chargeable to no particular portion of the railway, but due alike to the several kinds of work performed on the entire line of track now completed. The sums expended in this manner are applied in the statement to the whole work, and cannot vary from the truth. But, some materials, procured for specific purposes in the construction of the railway, it has been found convenient and necessary to apply to other parts of the work. Scantling procured for the railway has been used for building,—for bridges,—for various parts of the machinery connected with the road, and for a variety of other purposes. The same may be said of the iron rails, portions of which have been used in the branch roads of the city, for sidings at depots, and for other purposes not included in the length of track now taken as a basis for the calculation of the cost of the railway.

These remarks will apply also to the spikes—plates—screw bolts—timber for the machinery at the planes—scantling—sleepers—turn-out castings—tools—implements, and other items not enumerated, a part of which now remain on hand, available for the future operations of the company in repairs or construction. [See Appendix, J., Tabular statement, No. 2.]

Whilst, therefore, it would be proper to consider the materials which have been applied to other purposes, as well as those remaining on hand, and available for work yet to be performed, as constituting an off-set to the disbursements made on account of the general construction, it would not be right to place those expenditures to the cost of the work which has been fully completed; as would have been proper, had all the materials purchased been applied to that purpose. No allusion is here made to necessary *loss* and *waste* of materials;—all of which, as contingent to the work, are properly chargeable to its construction, though not actually forming a component part of the superstructure.

The most careful inquiry has been made of the appropriation of the various kinds of materials, of which a part has been used for other purposes, and of which, portions remain on hand. [See Appendix, J., statement No. 2.] An estimate has also been made of the quantity of these materials, inclusive of the *most ample allowance* for waste and contingencies, which might be justly chargeable to the work now completed; and under ordinary circumstances, incident to a like extent of track in the future construction of the railway upon the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. This process has been considered necessary, in order to show the relative expense of the different modes of construction, whether of wood or stone,—and whilst it may elucidate that part of the subject, it does not interfere with the ascertainment of the average cost per mile of the wood and stone railway, when they are considered together, as forming a *whole*. It may be proper here to remark, that although the length of single track on which the cost is given, is stated to be $129\frac{7}{100}$

* In the term "Contingencies" is included some charges for stationary, printing and advertising; which it has not been found practicable to separate from the sums due to the *general charges for contingencies*. These sums, however small, are chargeable to *laying the rails*; but, as the amount is altogether unimportant when applied to the whole work, not exceeding a few cents per mile, they have not been included in the statement of cost for laying the rails: and should these charges have been made to *laying the rails*, they would be greatly overbalanced by sums which have been paid by this department for the use of other departments, for contingencies not applicable to the rail tracks, but which from the difficulty of making such nice distinctions have been charged to the construction of the railway.

miles, yet only $56\frac{5}{16}$ miles of that extent is of continuous double track, viz: from the depot at the west end of Pratt-street, to a short distance west of the Monocacy viaduct.

Hence, as there is a difference of cost between the second and first tracks, allowing the price of workmanship to be the same on both, owing to the superior facility of transporting the materials for the second track on the one already laid, a small variation may occur on that account, between the estimated and actual cost of the rails yet to be laid on the fifth division. But this difference may be considered as unimportant in favor of the second track, it being found that the drains for the centre of the road, necessary to be made only on the completion of the second track, (the cost of which is common to both tracks,) and other work contingent also to both, will tend to equalize the advantage in favor of the second track.

The whole amount of disbursements on account of the construction and repairs of the railway, together with incidental expenditures on account of graduation, masonry, and other items not properly chargeable to the railway, but necessarily made by the department having in charge the laying of the rails, has been as follows:

1. For 6×6 inch yellow pine and other scantling, and log stuff for string pieces, inclusive of the services of agents in procuring it, inspection, piling, handling, wharfage, ground rent for places of deposite, hauling to places of deposite in Baltimore and elsewhere, loading, and contingencies not classed as above, \$91,379.69.

2. For sleepers of every description, including the same kind of charges made upon the scantling, \$34,545.89

3. For plates, procured for placing under the adjoining ends of the iron rails on the wood track, and for screw bolts, including all expenses, delivered in Baltimore, \$2,825.21.

4. For stone blocks delivered on the road bed in the valley of the Patapsco, between Elkridge Landing and Ellicott's Mills, \$3,983.34.

5. For iron rails, $2\frac{1}{4}$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ thick, including sterling cost, and exchange 11 per cent. \$124,065.37.

6. For freight, insurance, storage, drayage, loading, scowage and contingent charges for delivery at depot in Baltimore, of said iron, \$17,144.23.

7. For 133 bars of Liverpool edge rails, weight 10 tons, 8 cwt. 2 qr. 26 lb. inclusive of all expenses, delivered in Baltimore, \$565.51.

8. For chairs and bolts for said rails, inclusive of the same charges, \$268.68.

9. For English turnouts, inclusive of same charges, \$2,024.14.

10. For forgings and smith work for turnout castings, made in Baltimore, \$2,323.40.

11. For cast iron knees for stone block road, delivered at sundry places, \$2,422.24.

12. For nails for cast knees, \$442.42.

13. For small nails for plates, \$341.86.

14. For $4\frac{1}{4}$ inch spikes for wood track, including charges for freight and drayage, \$10,206.26.

15. For $3\frac{1}{2}$ inch spikes for stone road, inclusive of freight and charges, delivered in Baltimore, \$4,461.12.

16. For turnout castings, including each description of pattern, \$6,247.72.

17. For laying down turnouts, including superintendance, timber for turnouts, broken stone, tools, cutting and punching iron, spikes, moving tools and materials, and other contingent charges, \$7,009.68.

18. For amount paid to contractors for laying wood rails, at the *contract prices*, per rod of $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet each, \$71,995.33.

19. For amount paid for small culverts, shutes, and drains for the centre of the road, on the entire line between Baltimore and the Monocacy, (excepting on the inclined planes) \$1,337.79.

20. For contingent items chargeable to the wood track, not included in the contract price, per rod for laying the rails, viz. allowances for extra work required in securing foundations for stone blocks and sleepers—removing excavations, raising rails on embankments, making crossings for county and other roads, altera-

tions required of contractors, clearing off and graduation of road bed for second track, contingent hauling, circular platforms for turning cars, protection and preservation of materials, cost of sundry tools and implements used on the work, and other items not enumerated, dolls. 8,538.31.

21. For broken stone, for placing under the sleepers and stone blocks, dolls. 19,500.32.

22. For hauling the wood and iron materials for all the wood Railway, from the several depots to the sections and contracts on the several divisions, including the cost of loading, pay of agents for hauling, turnpike tolls, and items not enumerated, dolls. 34,210.80.

23. For local superintendance, axemen, and vanebearers, on the wood Railway, dolls. 9,268.05.

24. For the services of Resident and assistant Engineers, in giving the levels and curves for laying wood rails, and for other assistants on the wood work, dolls. 13,816.75.

25. For contingent items not chargeable to either the wood or stone Railway, separately, but common to both, in proportion to their respective lengths, being sums paid for instruments used in laying the rails, and for some belonging to the engineer and graduation departments—for repairing instruments; for stationery, printing, advertising, and general superintendance of laying rails and procurement of materials, dolls. 11,941.61.

26. For laying stone rails at the *contract prices* per rod, upon the first, second, and third Divisions, dolls. 133,736.97.

27. For amount paid the contractors for laying stone rails, for extra broken stone for bedding the rails, per contract, for making crossings for county and other roads—allowance for extra work required for foundation for rails, removing excavations from trenches per contract, and contingent items not enumerated, dolls. 22,155.39.

28. For hauling iron materials for stone track, dolls. 1,184.33.

30. For sundry expenses chargeable to stone Railway, viz. for raising rails on side and thorough embankments, rendered necessary by the settling and sliding of the fillings,—for changes required in the work, not included in the *contract prices*,—allowances made to contractors on account of sundry work performed on their contracts, and loss of materials prepared on the third Division, including payments on rails not prepared (as explained in the last annual report) and implements worn out, dolls. 13,951.63.

31. For local superintendance, vanebearers and axemen, on the stone road, dolls. 11,834.75.

32. For Engineer's wages in giving levels and curvatures on the stone road, and other assistants measuring rails, broken stone, &c. dolls. 5,831.50.

33. For amount paid contractors and others for the formation of the horse path, at the *contract prices* per rod, dolls. 31,263.84.

34. For amount paid for additional materials required in the formation of the horse path, including expenses of assistants in procuring them, and contingent charges for the same service; the said materials including all the broken stone and gravel over and above that paid for in the preceding charge, dolls. 21,681.87.

35. For tools and implements used in the construction and repairs of the road, Railway, and horse-path, most of them now remaining in the service, in good order; and for workmanship on sleepers not yet used in the track, dolls. 1,284.93.

36. For materials and workmanship, to accommodate the machinery of the inclined planes, Parr's Ridge, consisting of the cost of timber and plank, workmanship, tar, lead, work shop, castings, screw bolts, and contingent items not enumerated, but exclusive of any portion of said work chargeable to rail tracks, dolls. 9,417.01.

37. For City rail track, including cost of laying rails, pavement, graduation and masonry,

local superintendance, vanemen, axemen, and some contingent expenditures not enumerated, but exclusive of the cost of iron rails, spikes, and gutter irons, dolls. 32,551.91.

38. For amount expended during the progress of construction of the railway, not chargeable to rail tracks, viz. For removing slips of earth, rock, &c. from the banks, increasing the width of road bed in narrow places, by the use of earth, rock, and side walls, raising the grade on embankments, and excavations in cuts, formation of ditches and drains, quarrying off points of rock, excavation of chambers for machinery at Parr's Ridge, and building masonry for ditto, timber for bridges over the railway, new culverts across the road bed, guard walls for security of bridges, culverts and embankments, damages for right of way, hauling materials for Monocacy viaduct, piling deep cut, thatching embankments with brush, removing waste earth from the several deep cuts on the first division, and for sundry items not classed with the above, dolls. 53,126.32.

39. For work done in dressing sleepers, and for the delivery of broken stone, and distribution of materials for the unlaid portions of second track on the fifth division of the road, dolls. 1,081.05.

40. For repairs of road and railway, dolls. 2,067.97.

Making the sum of 822,055 dolls. 14 cts.

As has been observed, it will be improper to state as the cost of the rail tracks finished, the whole of the above amount, or even all of those charges for *materials* which are applicable to the railway, because, there are portions yet unappropriated to that use, and some which have been applied to other purposes. [See Appendix J. statement No. 2.] It will therefore be necessary to separate from the foregoing charges for materials, such proportion of the several kinds as have been actually applied to the work now finished, in order to show the true cost of the railway.

The scantling purchased, was 1,305.913 feet, running measure, at an average cost of \$69.⁹⁷₁₆₀ per thousand feet, or say 7 cents per foot run.

The length of track laid with scantling, = $95\frac{1}{20}$ miles, and would require 1,007,213 ft. nett measure. Add for turnouts, keys, crossings for county roads, and waste, 940 feet per mile, say 89,657 feet, and the amount charged to railway will be,

ft. 1,096,870
Remaining on hand at depot, Pratt st. 82,783
On 3d, 4th, and 5th divisions, and lateral road, 62,000

Making together, ft. 1,241,653

Leaving 64,260 feet appropriated to other purposes as before mentioned. To each mile of road there will be charged 11,500 feet run, at 7 cents per foot, which gives as the cost of scantling, the sum of 805 dolls. per mile per single track.

The whole number of sleepers procured is 136,750 at an average of $252\frac{62}{100}$ dolls. per thousand, or $25\frac{1}{4}$ cents each.

The length of track on which the sleepers have been used is the same as that for which the scantling is estimated, less the distance laid on stone blocks, viz. $95\frac{1}{20}$ — $5\frac{1}{20}$ = $89\frac{1}{20}$ miles laid on sleepers.

Sleepers required at 1320 per mile, 118,206
Add for contingencies 30 sleepers per mile, 2,686

Locust sleepers on 5th division, not laid, 7,515
Oak, &c. on 2d, 3d, and 4th divisions, and lateral road, 7,000

14,515

Total, 135,407
There is supposed to have been used for sidings and other purposes, 1,343

Total number purchased, 136,750
1350 sleepers, at \$252.62 per thousand = \$341.08 per mile for sleepers.

[To be continued.]

AGRICULTURE, &c.

[From the *New-England Farmer*.]

AGRICULTURAL ESSAYS, Nos. III & IV.

ON LABOR.—When I have been riding in the country in a very hot day, and seen farmers mowing and hoeing in the full blaze of the noon day sun, the custom of those farmers with whom I was conversant when a lad has immediately occurred to my mind. In the months of June, July and August they retired so early to rest that they seldom needed a candle to light them to their beds: and they rose as early in the morning as they could see to work. In the heat of the day, unless a shower, or something extra called them to exert themselves, they laid aside their labors for an hour or two, and indulged themselves in a comfortable nap after dinner. This gave them fresh strength and vigor; and they went forth to the labor of the evening, with spirit and pleasure. And if farmers would work as early and late as they could in the summer season, they might rest from eleven until two o'clock, and escape the intense heat and thirst of the day; and not be one half so much fatigued as others, who begin their labor late in the morning, at six or perhaps seven o'clock, and who, to perform the labors of the day, must bear the heat and burden of it, and go to their beds at night exceeding weary, and quite exhausted. From eleven till two, you may walk round your farm, stir hay, or do any light labor, without fatiguing yourself in the least. This walk will refresh your spirits; and may save your lands from the inroads of unruly cattle, sheep, swine, &c. Walls and other fences should often be inspected, if you wish to preserve the fruits of your labors, and half an hour, or more, in the time and season of it, devoted to this purpose, would not fail of being well rewarded. These hints may be improved on; and I close this paper by observing, that mowing and hoeing, both for comfort and profit, should be performed early in the morning and late in the evening.

EXCHANGING WORK.—Farmers, who handle but little money, should be cautious of entering into cash engagements; they will find it more convenient to exchange labor than to hire and pay money. Neighbors who have lands to break up, and teams to connect together, may do this business cheaper by exchanging with each other, than by hiring help and cattle. It will often be found mutually beneficial to make exchanges, even in mowing and hoeing. Thro' a difference in the situations and soils of farms, though adjoining each other, and through early cultivation in the one and late in the other, it frequently happens that the corn, grass, flax, &c. on one, is forwarder and ripe sooner, by several days, than on the other. In this case it would be prudent to unite their labors, and not to hire; this would be almost so much saved. But, then, these exchanges should never make any alteration, either in meats or drinks, in the farmer's family; for if any extra provision is made, an extraordinary expense is incurred. The chief use of land, and that which makes it principally beneficial and profitable to a man, is this, it gives him employment; it is of very little advantage or profit to him who does not labor upon it in person. A farmer should therefore be cautious of hiring much help, and at no time more than he can fully and profitably employ, and readily pay. And to do this, if he hires for a month, or for a year, he should endeavor to raise a surplusage of some one or of several articles, to the amount of the laborer's wages, at least; and if he does this, even then, he finds that a year's wages are not easily paid; it will take off a considerable part of his corn, flax, dairy, or some other produce. Those farmers who hire much labor done will soon be convinced, if men of sense, that scarce any farm will yield six per cent. and keep up the necessary repairs; and that although they possess flocks and herds and are the proprietors or owners of the soil, they are but little more than stewards to their laborers. And this should excite them to labor industriously with their own hands, and to do

all they can within themselves. When diet and labor are scarce and dear, and a man has several farms, or more land to improve and cultivate than he can take care of, unless he hires a number of laborers, he should let, or put them to the halves, as it is called, to honest and industrious men, if he can find them. For, the difference between hiring laborers and boarding them, and letting or putting out a farm, as above, the produce of which may amount to eighty or a hundred pounds, would be twenty or twenty-five per cent. in favor of the proprietor. And he will not have the trouble of providing for, and paying a number of people; some of whom, after all his attention and punctuality toward them, will not acknowledge themselves satisfied and contented. Good help, as it is called, is generally scarce and dear, and with difficulty obtained; and a farmer who hires careless, ignorant and slothful laborers, notwithstanding all his own industry, will never grow rich.

The following we deem worthy of the notice of those who cultivate the vine in this country, and is from the *London Gardener's Magazine*.

ON A RAPID MODE OF RAISING EXCELLENT VINE PLANTS.

SIR:—The following is a mode by which I raised a sufficient number of fine young vines to stock a vineyঃ—

At the pruning season, leave a shoot of strong young wood, over and above what may be wanted for training, of a sufficient length to bend down to any convenient place where a pot can be placed to receive it as a layer; and also for training it during its growth. When the vine begins to push, displace all the buds from the shoot intended for laying, except the leading one. When this is grown to about 8 inches or 1 foot in length, bend it down to the pot, and lay it so that the top joint, whence the young wood has sprung, may be fixed with a strong crook at about 1 inch under the surface of the mould. As soon as it begins to take root, which may be known by removing a little of the earth, begin to weaken its resources from the mother plant, by making an incision in the wood behind the pot; which enlarge by degrees, as fast as the young plant will bear it, until it be quite separated from the old one.

The advantage of the method is, that the vine may be grown to 10 or 20 feet and upwards in length the first season, with a pot full of roots: so that it may be planted in any situation where it may be wanted, without being checked in its growth, as is generally the case when grown in the usual way from a layer.

The pot ought not to be less than a 24; it must be filled with rich compost; and, if the layer be watered occasionally with liquid manure, it will considerably promote its growth.

I am, Sir, yours, &c. T. RUTGER.
Short Grove, Essex, July 5, 1832.

[From the *New-England Farmer*.]

CABBAGES.—It is asserted in Dr. Rees' *Encyclopædia*, that "cabbages possess the property of fattening cattle not only more expeditiously, but in less proportion than turnips; an acre of the former having been found to fatten one in four more than the same extent of the latter crop."

Mr. John Townsend, of Andover, Conn. recommends the following mode of preserving cabbages. "Dig a trench about six inches deep, in dry ground, and wide enough to admit the head of the cabbage; lay two sticks parallel with each other on the bottom of the trench, or the heads to rest on, to keep them from the ground; place the heads on the sticks with the roots up, and surround them with straw; then cover them with earth six or eight inches deep, having the ground sloping to carry off the rains; they will come out in the spring sound, fresh and tender, as they were when gathered."

Cabbages should not be pulled till there is danger of their freezing too fast to be got up. If there happen to fall an early snow it will not injure them. If room can be spared, it is a good

plan to take them up by the roots from the field or garden, and set them out again in the bottom of a cellar, the cooler the better.

CULTIVATING TULIPS.—The situation of the beds for full grown flowering bulbs, should always be in an open, airy, part of the garden; the common soil must be taken out the full dimensions of the bed, to the depth of about eighteen inches, and the place filled up with good sandy loam, from an old pasture, (which should be dug at least four months before it is used) mixed with a small portion of well-rotted two-year-old horse-dung. The bed must be raised three inches above the paths, at the outsides, and four inches, at least, in the middle of the bed; this convexity will render it more capable of casting off the water, when exposed at any time to heavy rain. The bed being thus formed, the next thing to proceed to is planting; the best time for doing this is the beginning of November; plant the bulbs about five inches from each other in the rows, and the same distance from row to row, being careful to put in each hole a little fine river sand, before you introduce the bulb; this will not only be of great service to the root, but will also greatly prevent their being attacked by the grub and wire-worm. The depth they must be planted is about four inches.—[London Hort. Reg.]

MITES, &c. IN SEEDS.—Various species of mites, and other curious insects may be found in the siftings of seeds, particularly a very peculiar one in those of the common poppy; this insect is furnished with two fangs of a very formidable description, having joints like the claw of a lobster. With these fangs it seizes its prey and conveys it to its mouth. I would recommend every person possessing a microscope to provide himself with some of these siftings.

[From the *Spirit of Washington*.]

MANUAL LABOR.—As a branch of education to our higher seminaries, manual labor is attracting public attention and winning converts to a belief in its great utility. The development of the physical as well as the mental powers, in order to make the whole man symmetrical and well balanced, has been too long neglected. It was not thus in ancient days. Happily for the cause of education, the prejudices which resulted from the superstitions of the dark ages and the reactions of the Protestant reformation, are being dispelled, and a just medium, or a combination of mental and intellectual development in the formation of man, is beginning to reassume its proper importance.

The Lane seminary about two miles from Cincinnati, where there are about 90 students, has connected with it a farm of about 110 acres, which is cultivated by the students, and from it their tables are supplied. They have also workshops for those who prefer that kind of exercise; and for all in rainy weather and in winter. Each student is required to work three hours every day, either on the farm or in the shops.

It is said by men who have experience in this mode of education, that greater proficiency is made where labor to such an extent is combined with study; and that dyspepsia is a stranger to such schools.

Why can they not be introduced in this country? We think they may, and with great advantage.

GRAPES.—The editor of the *Baltimore Patriot* acknowledges the receipt of a basket of grapes from Dr. Norton, of Richmond, Va. consisting of the "Woodson" and "Cunningham," native varieties, which the Doctor introduced into his vineyard from Prince Edward county, in that state. The Woodson is a red grape, the berry a medium size, between the chicken and the large fox; the bunches very compact and weighing about 4 ounces; *free from pulp*, a rich flavor. The Cunningham is a black or deep purple, covered with bloom; the bunches ragged and irregular, (in this resembling the chicken grape,) berry a little less than that of the Wood-

son, free from pulp, and rich in saccharine matter; the skin thick and leathery. The latter resembling in flavor and richness the Herbeumont Madeira, and both are decidedly very superior grapes, both for the table and wine. Each of these grapes has but one seed, and that a very small one.

A GOOD HUSBANDMAN.—Let us for a moment visit the dwelling of a good husbandman. We find him in possession of a competency. Every thing about him is marked with neatness and order. His family is distinguished for industry, frugality and correct deportment. His mind, though not bred a scholar, is replenished with useful knowledge.

He knows enough of law to avoid litigation; enough of the human system to keep it healthful by diligent exercise, and by temperate habits; enough of morality and religion, to practice them. In the morning he rises with the dawn; calls his household round the family altar; pays his devotions to the fountain of light; and like the great luminary of heaven, he performs the duty of the day.

At mid-day and at evening, he returns to his house, where good order, conjugal affection and filial respect, bid him welcome. His labor done; the world at rest; at peace with himself and his God, he is ready for repose. His heart is an altar; his house a Bethel; and his family a church. If Satan broke into Paradise and blasted all its glories, he would meet a repulse on this consecrated spot.—[Moore's Address.]

[From the Portsmouth Journal.]

BUTTER.—Two farmers, from a town near the centre of New-Hampshire, each carried 2 or 300 lbs. of Butter, to Newburyport, a short time since, for sale.

Their farms were close together, and as nearly alike as possible. Their pastures were similar, and the number of their cows the same.—Yet the one sold his butter quick, at 19 cts.—The other, after offering his all round, at the stores, made out to get 13 cts. The difference between the lots of butter, [look to it, farmers' wives and daughters!]—was simply this,—one farmer had good Dairy woman on his farm, while the family of the other made bad butter.

this method for grafting whenever the stock and the graft are of the same size, or very nearly so.—[Loudon's Magazine.]

[From Cobb's Manual on Culture of Silk, &c.]
ON REARING SILK WORMS.

The silk insect affords a display of the wisdom of Divine Providence in the adaptation of means to ends, calculated to excite high interest and admiration.

The extraordinary effect produced by this little animal in the short space of six weeks is no less than the conversion of the vegetable substance of the mulberry leaf into threads of rich and durable silk. Well might the Emperor Justinian be astonished to find that the rich and beautiful material of his magnificent robes was first produced and worn by this feeble insect; and well might he repay with munificence the monks by whose exertions the eggs of the silk worm were smuggled in a hollow cane from India to Constantinople. This hollow cane was the ark whence came out the germ of those numerous tribes of this insect which have spread over the whole of Europe, and whose descendants are now fast settling in these United States. Let us commence with the eggs of this insect, and trace its operations, its wants, and various changes, till it forms the cocoon, from which proceeds the moth, which in its turn produces the egg.

The Eggs.—The eggs are of small size. When first laid, they are of a pale yellow color, but in three or four days turn to a light slate color, and subsequently to a dull brownish slate color. Those which remain yellow have not been fecundated, and of course are worthless. The most proper place for keeping the eggs until they are wanted for hatching is a dry cellar. They should be kept in a tight box, to protect them from mice or insects, and dry, so that the mould and mildew may not injure them.

The Hatching, Leaves, &c.—The advance of the season determines the time of hatching the eggs. As soon as the leaf of the mulberry begins to unfold—which is generally in this climate (New-England) the latter part of May—and you observe that there is a prospect of having a sufficient quantity of food, it is time to expose the eggs to hatch. No other process is necessary than to expose them to the air in a room; they hatch voluntarily in a day or two after the exposure. Various modes are adopted in Europe—hatching them in ovens, carrying them about the person, &c.—but nothing of that kind is necessary here.

It is best to preserve those insects for rearing, that come out as nearly at the same time as possible. As soon as the worms begin to appear, lay over them young and tender mulberry leaves; they will soon attach themselves to the leaves, and by taking hold of the stems of the leaves you may remove them easily. They ought now to be supplied with fresh tender leaves three times a day. As the leaves when very young will dry so much in a short time, if exposed to the air, as to be unfit for use, you may put them in a glazed vessel, or keep them covered in a cellar or cool place: by which means the leaves may be kept good for two or three days.* Besides, it is well to have always in your house at a time a stock of leaves, sufficient at least for three days' provision for your worms in case of wet weather. If leaves are given when wet, they will cause disease. Be careful never to pull the leaves when wet, either with rain or dew, except on absolute necessity, and in that case you must spread them and turn them, that the leaves may be perfectly dry before you give them to the worms; rats,

mice, spiders, ants, and fowls, are very destructive to the worms: care must be taken, therefore, to keep them out of the way of all such enemies.

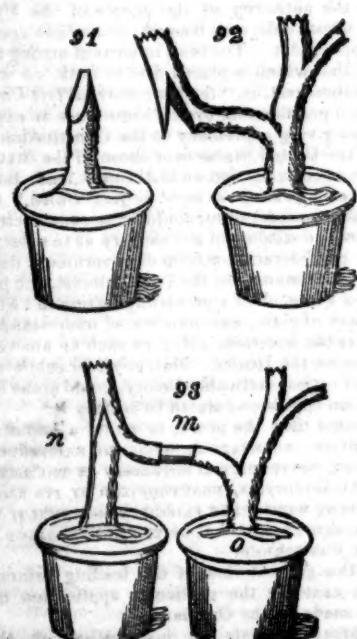
The Nursery, Shelves, &c.—In Europe laboratories have been constructed with great care and expense; but, however convenient these may be, they are by no means necessary to success in rearing silk-worms: almost any building will answer for that purpose. I have reared them myself with success in a barn, in my cellar kitchen, and other rooms of my dwelling house, and in the lower story of Tremont House in Boston. It was found in France that the cocoons brought to market by the peasants, raised in hovels so full of cracks as easily to be seen through and to admit the air freely, were richer and heavier than those reared in palaces and in the confined rooms of dwellings in cities.* The apparatus of the Rev. Mr. Swain, I should think might be worth adopting, for those who are beginning on a small scale; in fact I have had something like it constructed for my own use. This apparatus consists of a wooden frame, four feet two inches high, each side; sixteen inches and a half wide, divided into eight partitions by small pieces of wood, which form grooves in which the slides run, and are thus easily thrust in or drawn out of the frame.

The upper slide is of paper only and designed to receive the worms as soon as hatched; the others are of wicker work, the opening being about a quarter of an inch square; under each of these are slides. This occupies little space and is neat, and the persons using it can easily remove the litter. I have used three tiers of rough pine boards fixed upon upright posts, about four feet in width, one above the other, with a space between of two and a half feet, affording room sufficient to pass all round the frame, so that I could conveniently reach any part of it. In making the shelves, it is well to have the lowest one six inches broader than the one above it, and to make the same difference in the other shelves above, so as to break the fall of such worms as happen to tumble down. A good form for the shelves is that adopted by Mr. J. Y. Tompkins, of Baltimore, and which I saw in the nursery of Gideon B. Smith, Esq. of that place. It is about 2½ feet wide, by five or six long, made of thin boards, with a piece two inches wide nailed flat on the upper edge along the sides and ends, with legs about a foot long in the corners. The legs do not pass through the table, but leave a part of the hole on the upper side for the feet of another table to set in. Thus contrived, five or six of these tables are set one above another, and are taken down, cleaned and again set up with facility.—One of these shelves will accommodate 500 worms.† It might be as well to put old newspapers on the shelves, which might be taken off whenever it was necessary to clean the worms, and then replaced.—Thus I have done.

The Different Ages, Moulting, &c.—There

* I saw at Philadelphia on the 21st of June last, worms raised by Mr. D'Homergue in a yard of mulberry trees, which bore heavy rains and thunder storms, as well as cold windy days, a few of which spun in 30 days, and produced excellent cocoons. They began to mount 32 days after hatching. I also saw a few worms raised from eggs which were laid on the outside of a brick wall, in a northern exposure, which had stood all the severity of the winter. I saw many thousands of excellent cocoons, raised by Mr. Du Ponceau, under the care of Mr. D'Homergue, in the heart of the city of Philadelphia. I tried some on trees in the open air the present season, but they did not succeed; they attained, however, to a considerable size, but the frequent rains destroyed them.

† Farmers, however, who would make it profitable, should raise one or two hundred thousand, and rough boards will make the cheapest and most ready shelves for use on an extensive scale.



NEW METHOD OF GRAFTING BY APPROACH.—Cut off the stock in the form of a wedge, as in fig. 91, and cut the graft upwards, half way through, for a sufficient length, as in fig. 92; then place the graft upon the stock, as in fig. 93, and bind it on with bass and clay as usual, taking off a circle of bark between the graft and the root, as in fig. 93, *n*, which will cause the sap to flow through the graft into the stock before you feed the worms; you may thus keep them three or four days. The leaf wants air, instead of into its own root *o*. I recommend to keep fresh,

* Mr. D'H. proposes the following method to preserve leaves: Put them under cover on a brick pavement, or gravelled floor; turn them over, and place them further, where it is not damp, (for they always leave a dampness where they lie,) three or four times a day, or an hour before you feed the worms; you may thus keep them three or four days. The leaf wants air,

are several varieties of silk-worms.* The most common varieties change their skins four different times. These changes are called moultings, and the intervening times the different ages. The time requisite for the several changes depends greatly on the temperature. If the weather is warm, they will generally happen as follows: the first moulting on the fourth or fifth day after the hatching—the second begins on the eighth day—the third on the thirteenth and fourteenth days—and the last change on the twenty-second.

The fifth age lasts about ten days; at the end of which the worms have reached their ultimate growth, being three inches in length, and are prepared to spin their cocoons. Thus thirty-two days intervene between the hatching and the beginning of the cocoon, and I have known the period retarded to sixty days. These changes will only be noticed by accurate observers.

* I saw in the Nursery of Gideon B. Smith, Esq. of Baltimore, four different varieties. I would recommend, as most profitable for rearing, the large white.

PROCLAMATION,

By Andrew Jackson, President of the United States.

WHEREAS, a Convention assembled in the State of S. Carolina, have passed an Ordinance by which they declare, "That the several acts and parts of acts of the Congress of the United States purporting to be laws for the imposing of duties and imposts on the importation of foreign commodities, and now having actual operation and effect within the United States, and more especially," two acts for the same purposes passed on the 29th of May, 1828, and on the 14th of July, 1832, "are unauthorized by the Constitution of the United States, and violate the true meaning and intent thereof, and are null and void, and no law," nor binding on the citizens of that State or its officers: and by the said Ordinance, it is further declared to be unlawful for any of the constituted authorities of the State or of the United States to enforce the payment of the duties imposed by the said acts within the same State, and that it is the duty of the Legislature to pass such laws as may be necessary to give full effect to the said Ordinance;

AND WHEREAS, by the said Ordinance it is further ordained, that in no case of law or equity, decided in the Courts of said State, wherein shall be drawn in question the validity of the said Ordinance, or of the acts of the Legislature that may be passed to give it effect, or of the said laws of the United States, no appeal shall be allowed to the Supreme Court of the United States, nor shall any copy of the record be permitted or allowed for that purpose, and that any person attempting to take such an appeal shall be punished as for a contempt of Court;

And, finally, the said ordinance declares, that the people of South Carolina will maintain the said Ordinance at every hazard; and that they will consider the passage of any act by Congress abolishing or closing the ports of the said State, or otherwise obstructing the free ingress or egress of vessels to and from the said ports, or any other act of the Federal Government to coerce the State, shut up her ports, destroy or harass her commerce, or to enforce the said acts otherwise than through the civil tribunals of the country, as inconsistent with the longer continuance of South Carolina in the Union; and that the people of the said State will thenceforth hold themselves absolved from all further obligation to maintain or preserve their political connection with the people of the other States, and will forthwith proceed to organize a separate Government, and do all other acts and things which sovereign and independent States may of right do;

AND WHEREAS, the said Ordinance prescribes to the people of South Carolina a course of conduct, in direct violation of their duty as citizens of the United States, contrary to the laws of their country, subversive of its Constitution, and having for its object the destruction of the Union—that Union, which, coeval with our political existence, led our fathers, without any other tie to unite them than those of patriotism and a common cause, through a sanguinary struggle to a glorious independence—that sacred Union, hitherto inviolate, which, perfected by our happy Constitution, has brought us by the favor of Heaven to a state of prosperity at

home, and high consideration abroad, rarely, if ever, equalled in the history of nations. To preserve this bond of our political existence from destruction, to maintain inviolate this state of national honor and prosperity, and to justify the confidence my fellow-citizens have reposed in me, I, ANDREW JACKSON, President of the United States, have thought proper to issue this my PROCLAMATION, stating my views of the Constitution and Laws applicable to the measures adopted by the Convention of South Carolina, and to the reasons they have put forth to sustain them, declaring the course which duty will require me to pursue, and appealing to the understanding and patriotism of the people, warn them of the consequences that must inevitably result from an observance of the dictates of the Convention.

Strict duty would require of me nothing more than the exercise of those powers with which I am now, or may hereafter be invested, for preserving the peace of the Union and for the execution of the laws. But the imposing aspect which opposition has assumed in this case, by clothing itself with State authority, and the deep interest which the people of the United States must all feel in preventing a resort to stronger measures, while there is a hope that any thing will be yielded to reasoning and remonstrance, perhaps demand, and will certainly justify a full exposition to South Carolina and the nation of the views I entertain of this important question, as well as a distinct enunciation of the course which my sense of duty will require me to pursue.

The Ordinance is founded, not on the indefeasible right of resisting acts which are plainly unconstitutional and too oppressive to be endured; but on the strange position that any one State may not only declare an Act of Congress void, but prohibit its execution—that they may do this consistently with the Constitution—that the true construction of that instrument permits a State to retain its place in the Union, and yet be bound by no other of its laws than those it may choose to consider as constitutional. It is true, they add, that to justify this abrogation of a law, it must be palpably contrary to the Constitution; but it is evident, that to give the right of resisting laws of that description, coupled with the uncontrolled right to decide what laws deserve that character, is to give the power of resisting all laws. For, as by the theory, there is no appeal, the reasons alleged by the State, good or bad, must prevail. If it should be said that public opinion is a sufficient check against the abuse of this power, it may be asked why it is not deemed a sufficient guard against the passage of an unconstitutional act by Congress. There is, however, a restraint in this last case, which makes the assumed power of a State more indefensible, and which does not exist in the other. There are two appeals from an unconstitutional Act passed by Congress—one to the Judiciary, the other to the People, and the States. There is no appeal from the State decision in theory, and the practical illustration shows that the courts are closed against an application to review it, both judge and jurors being sworn to decide in its favor. But reasoning on this subject is superfluous when our social compact in express terms declares, that the laws of the United States, its Constitution and treaties made under it, are the supreme law of the land—and for greater caution adds, "that the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding."

And it may be asserted without fear of refutation, that no Federative Government could exist without a similar provision. Look for a moment to the consequence. If South Carolina considers the revenue laws unconstitutional, and has a right to prevent their execution in the port of Charleston, there would be a clear constitutional objection to their collection in every other port, and no revenue could be collected any where; for all imposts must be equal. It is no answer to repeat, that an unconstitutional law is no law, so long as the question of its legality is to be decided by the State itself; for every law operating injuriously upon any local interest, will be perhaps thought, and certainly represented, as unconstitutional, and, as has been shown, there is no appeal.

If this doctrine had been established at an earlier day, the Union would have been dissolved in its infancy. The excise law in Pennsylvania, the embargo and non-intercourse law in the Eastern States, the carriage tax in Virginia, were all deemed unconstitutional and were more unequal in their operation than any of the laws now complained of; but fortunately none of those States discovered that they had the right now claimed by South Carolina. The war into which we were forced, to support the

dignity of the nation and the rights of our citizens, might have ended in defeat and disgrace instead of victory and honor, if the States who supposed it a ruinous and unconstitutional measure had thought they possessed the right of nullifying the act by which it was declared and denying supplies for its prosecution. Hardly and unequally as those measures bore upon several members of the Union, to the Legislatures of none did this efficient and peaceable remedy, as it is called, suggest itself. The discovery of this important feature in our Constitution was reserved to the present day. To the statesmen of South Carolina belongs the invention, and upon the citizens of that State will unfortunately fall the evils, of reducing it to practice.

If the doctrine of a State veto upon the laws of the Union carries with it internal evidence of its impracticable absurdity, our constitutional history will also afford abundant proof that it would have been repudiated with indignation had it been proposed to form a feature in our Government.

In our colonial state, although dependent on another power, we very early considered ourselves as connected by common interest with each other.—Leagues were formed for common defence, and before the Declaration of Independence we were known in our aggregate character as THE UNITED COLONIES OF AMERICA. That decisive and important step was taken jointly. We declared ourselves a nation by a joint, not by several acts, and when the terms of our confederation were reduced to form, it was in that of a solemn league of several States by which they agreed that they would collectively form one nation for the purpose of conducting some certain domestic concerns and all foreign relations. In the instrument forming that union is found an article which declares that, "every State shall abide by the determinations of Congress on all questions which by that confederation should be submitted to them."

Under the confederation then, no State could legally annul a decision of the Congress, or refuse to submit to its execution; but no provision was made to enforce these decisions. Congress made requisitions but they were not complied with. The Government could not operate on individuals. They had no Judiciary, no means of collecting revenue.

But the defects of the confederation need not be detailed. Under its operation we could scarcely be called a nation. We had neither prosperity at home nor consideration abroad. This state of things could not be endured, and our present happy Constitution was formed, but formed in vain, if this fatal doctrine prevails. It was formed for important objects that are announced in the preamble made in the name and by the authority of the people of the United States, whose delegates framed, and whose conventions approved it. The most important among these objects, that which is placed first in rank, on which all the others rest, is, "to form a more perfect Union." Now, is it possible that even if there were no express provision giving supremacy to the Constitution and laws of the United States over those of the States—can it be conceived, that an instrument made for the purpose of "forming a more perfect Union," than that of the confederation, could be so constructed by the assembled wisdom of our country as to substitute for that confederation a form of government dependent for its existence on the local interest, the party spirit of a State, or of a prevailing faction in a State? Every man of plain, unsophisticated understanding, who hears the question, will give such an answer as will preserve the Union. Metaphysical subtlety, in pursuit of an impracticable theory, could alone have devised one that is calculated to destroy it.

I consider then the power to annul a law of the United States, INCOMPATIBLE WITH THE EXISTENCE OF THE UNION, CONTRADICTED EXPRESSLY BY THE LETTER OF THE CONSTITUTION, UNAUTHORIZED BY ITS SPIRIT, INCONSISTENT WITH EVERY PRINCIPLE ON WHICH IT WAS FOUNDED, AND DESTRUCTIVE OF THE GREAT OBJECT FOR WHICH IT WAS FORMED.

After this general view of the leading principle, we must examine the particular application of it which is made in the Ordinance.

The preamble rests its justification on these grounds:—It assumes as a fact, that the obnoxious laws, although they purport to be laws for raising revenue, were in reality intended for the protection of manufactures, which purpose it asserts to be unconstitutional—that the operation of these laws is unequal—that the amount raised by them is greater than is required by the wants of the government—and finally, that the proceeds are to be applied to objects unauthorized by the Constitution. These are the only causes alleged to justify an open opposition to the laws of the country, and a threat of seceding

from the Union, if any attempt should be made to enforce them. The first virtually acknowledges, that the law in question was passed under a power expressly given by the Constitution, to lay and collect imposts; but its constitutionality is drawn in question from the *motions* of those who passed it.—However apparent this purpose may be in the present case, nothing can be more dangerous than to admit the position that an unconstitutional purpose, entertained by the members who assent to a law enacted under a constitutional power, shall make that law void; for how is that purpose to be ascertained?—Who is to make the scrutiny? How often may bad purposes be falsely imputed—in how many cases are they concealed by false professions—in how many is no declaration of motive made? Admit this doctrine, and you give to the States an uncontrolled right to decide, and every law may be annulled under this pretext. If, therefore, the absurd and dangerous doctrine should be admitted, that a State may annul an unconstitutional law, or one that it deems such, it will not apply to the present case.

The next objection is, that the laws in question operate unequally. This objection may be made with truth to every law that has been or can be passed. The wisdom of man never yet contrived a system of taxation that would operate with perfect equality. If the unequal operation of a law makes it unconstitutional, and if all laws of that description may be abrogated by any State for that cause, then indeed is the Federal Constitution unworthy of the slightest effort for its preservation. We have hitherto relied on it as the perpetual bond of our Union. We have received it as the work of the assembled wisdom of the nation. We have trusted to it as to the sheet anchor of our safety in the stormy times of conflict with a foreign or domestic foe. We have looked to it with sacred awe as the palladium of our liberties, and, with all the solemnities of religion, have pledged to each other our lives and fortunes here, and our hopes of happiness hereafter, in its defence and support. Were we mistaken, my countrymen, in attaching this importance to the Constitution of our country? Was our devotion paid to the wretched, inefficient, clumsy contrivance, which this new doctrine would make it? Did we pledge ourselves to the support of an airy nothing, a bubble that must be blown away by the first breath of disaffection? Was this self-destroying, visionary theory, the work of the profound statesmen, the exalted patriots, to whom the task of constitutional reform was entrusted? Did the name of Washington sanction, did the States deliberately ratify, such an anomaly in the history of fundamental legislation? No; we were not mistaken. The letter of this great instrument is free from this radical fault: its language directly contradicts the imputation—its spirit, its evident intent, contradicts it. No, we did not err! Our Constitution does not contain the absurdity of giving power to make laws, and another power to resist them. The sages whose memory will always be revered have given us a practical, and, as they hoped, a permanent constitutional compact. The Father of his country did not affix his name to so palpable an absurdity. Nor did the States, when they severally ratified it, do so under the impression that a veto on the laws of the United States was reserved to them, or that they could exercise it by implication. Search the debates in all their Conventions—examine the speeches of the most zealous opposers of Federal authority—look at the amendments that were proposed—they are all silent—not a syllable uttered, not a vote given, not a motion made to correct the explicit supremacy given to the laws of the Union over those of the States—or to show that implication, as is now contended, could defeat it. No—we have not erred! The Constitution is still the object of our reverence, the bond of our Union, our defence in danger, the source of our prosperity in peace. It shall descend as we have received it, uncorrupted by sophistical construction, to our posterity; and the sacrifices of local interest, of State prejudices, of personal animosities, that were made to bring it into existence, will again be patriotically offered for its support.

The two remaining objections made by the Ordinance to these laws are, that the sums intended to be raised by them are greater than are required, and that the proceeds will be unconstitutionally employed.

The Constitution has given expressly to Congress the right of raising revenue and of determining the sum the public exigencies will require. The States have no control over the exercise of this right, other than that which results from the power of changing the Representatives who abuse it, and

thus procure redress. Congress may undoubtedly abuse this discretionary power, but the same may be said of others with which they are vested. Yet the discretion must exist somewhere. The Constitution has given it to the Representatives of all the people checked by the Representatives of the States, and by the Executive power. The South Carolina construction gives it to the Legislature or the Convention of a single State, where neither the people of the different States, nor the States in their separate capacity, nor the Chief Magistrate elected by the people have any representation. Which is the most discreet disposition of the power? I do not ask you, fellow citizens, which is the constitutional disposition—that instrument speaks a language that cannot be misunderstood; but if you were assembled in General Convention, which would you think the safest depository of this discretionary power in the last resort? Would you add a clause giving it to each of the States, or would you sanction the wise provisions already made by your Constitution? If this should be the result of your deliberations when providing for the future, are you, can you be ready, to risk all that we hold dear, to establish, for a temporary and a local purpose, that which you must acknowledge to be destructive and even absurd as a general provision? Carry out the consequences of this right vested in the different States, and you must perceive that the crisis your conduct presents at this day would recur whenever any law of the United States displeased any of the States, and that we should soon cease to be a nation.

The Ordinance, with the same knowledge of the future that characterises a former objection, tells you that the proceeds of the tax will be unconstitutionally applied. If this could be ascertained with certainty, the objection would, with more propriety, be reserved for the law so applying the proceeds, but surely cannot be urged against the laws levying the duty.

These are the allegations contained in the Ordinance. Examine them seriously, my fellow citizens,—judge for yourselves. I appeal to you to determine whether they are so clear, so convincing, as to leave no doubt of their correctness: and even if you should come to this conclusion, how far they justify the reckless, destructive course, which you are directed to pursue. Review these objections, and the conclusions drawn from them, once more. What are they? Every law then for raising revenue, according to the South Carolina Ordinance, may be rightfully annulled, unless it be so framed as no law over will or can be framed. Congress have a right to pass laws for raising revenue, and each State has a right to oppose their execution—two rights directly opposed to each other—and yet is this absurdity supposed to be contained in an instrument drawn for the express purpose of avoiding collisions between the States and the general government, by an assembly of the most enlightened statesmen and patriotic patriots ever embodied for a similar purpose.

In vain have these sages declared that Congress shall have the power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises—in vain have they provided that they shall have power to pass laws which shall be necessary and proper to carry those powers into execution, that those laws and that constitution shall be the "supreme law of the land, and that the Judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding." In vain have the people of the several states solemnly sanctioned these provisions, made them their paramount law, and individually sworn to support them whenever they were called on to execute any office. Vain provisions! ineffectual restrictions! vile profanation of oaths! miserable mockery of legislation! If a bare majority of the voters in any one state may, on a real or supposed knowledge of the intent with which a law has been passed, declare themselves free from its operation—say here it gives too little, there too much, and operates unequally—here it suffers articles to be free that ought to be taxed—there it taxes those that ought to be free—in this case the proceeds are intended to be applied to purposes which we do not approve—in that, the amount raised is more than is wanted. Congress, it is true, are invested by the Constitution with the right of deciding those questions according to their sound discretion; Congress is composed of the representatives of all the States, and of all the people of all the states; but we, part of the people of one state, to whom the Constitution has given no power on the subject, from whom it has expressly taken it away—we, who have solemnly agreed that this Constitution shall be our law—we, most of whom have sworn to support it—we now abrogate this law, and swear, and force others to swear, that it shall not be obeyed. And we do this, not because Congress have no right to pass such laws

—this we do not allege, but because they have passed them with improper views. They are unconstitutional from the motives of those who passed them, which we can never with certainty know—from their unequal operation, although it is impossible from the nature of things that they should be equal—and from the disposition which we presume may be made of their proceeds, although that disposition has not been declared. This is the plain meaning of the Ordinance in relation to laws which it abrogates for alleged unconstitutionality. But it does not stop there. It repeals, in express terms, an important part of the Constitution itself, and of laws passed to give it effect, which have never been alleged to be unconstitutional. The Constitution declares that the judicial powers of the United States extend to cases arising under the laws of the United States, and that such laws, the Constitution, and Treaties, shall be paramount to the State Constitutions and laws. The judiciary act prescribes the mode by which the case may be brought before a Court of the United States, by appeal, when a State tribunal shall decide against this provision of the Constitution. The Ordinance declares there shall be no appeal—makes the State law paramount to the Constitution and laws of the United States—forces judges and jurors to swear that they will disregard their provisions; and even makes it penal in a suitor to attempt relief by appeal. It further declares, that it shall not be lawful for the authorities of the United States, or of that State, to enforce the payment of duties imposed by the revenue laws within its limits.

Here is a law of the United States, not even pretended to be unconstitutional, repealed by the authority of a small majority of the voters of a single State. Here is a provision of the Constitution, which is solemnly abrogated by the same authority.

On such expositions and reasonings the Ordinance grounds not only an assertion of the right to annul the laws of which it complains, but to enforce it by a threat of seceding from the Union if any attempt is made to execute them.

This right to secede is deduced from the nature of the Constitution, which they say is a compact between sovereign States, who have preserved their whole sovereignty, and therefore are subject to no superior; that because they made the compact, they can break it, when, in their opinion, it has been departed from by the other States. Fallacious as this course of reasoning is, it enlists state pride, and finds advocates in the honest prejudices of those who have not studied the nature of our government sufficiently to see the radical error on which it rests.

The people of the United States formed the Constitution, acting through the State Legislatures in making the compact, to meet and discuss its provisions, and acting in separate conventions when they ratified those provisions; but the terms used in its construction, shew it to be a government in which the people of all the States collectively are represented. We are ONE PEOPLE in the choice of the President and Vice President. Here the States have no other agency than to direct the mode in which the votes shall be given. The candidates having the majority of all the votes are chosen. The electors of a majority of States may have given their votes for one candidate and yet another may be chosen. The people, then, and not the States, are represented in the Executive branch.

In the House of Representatives there is this difference, that the people of one State do not, as in the case of President and Vice President, all vote for the same officers. The people of all the States do not vote for all the members, each State electing only its own Representatives. But this creates no material distinction. When chosen, they are all representatives of the United States, not representatives of the particular State from which they come. They are paid by the United States, not by the State; nor are they accountable to it for any act done in the performance of their legislative functions; and however they may in practice, as it is their duty to do, consult and prefer the interests of their particular constituents, when they come in conflict with any other partial or local interest, yet it is their first and highest duty, as representatives of the United States, to promote the general good.

The Constitution of the United States then forms a government, not a league; and whether it be formed by compact between the States, or in any other manner, its character is the same. It is a government in which all the people are represented, which operates directly on the people individually, not upon the States—they retained all the power they did not grant. But each State having expressly parted with so many powers as to constitute jointly with the other States a single nation, cannot from that period possess any right to secede, because such secession does not break a league, but destroys the unity of a nation, and any injury to that unity is not only a breach which would result from the contravention of a com-

A TORNADO IN THE VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

A writer in the American Journal of Science gives an excellent article on the Origin, Extension and Continuance of Prairies. The extract on the tornado will be read with interest:

We have stated that hurricanes and whirlwinds, by their inroads upon the forests, are chiefly instrumental in forming prairies.

It is believed that hurricanes are not so frequent and so violent as formerly. For the last 25 years particularly, they have diminished in number and energy. The signs of hurricanes, previous to the year 1805, would indicate in their case, a frequency and violence unequalled in any subsequent period.

In the year 1805 it happened to the writer to be roving on that most beautiful lawn, extending from Kaskaskia to Illinois, and which is called the American bottom. There was the most charming alternation of prairie, and woodland, and while he was musing on the cause which gave rise to forests of grass, or cane, and of stupendous oaks and cotton woods, he was roused, and his attention directed to a scene of unequalled grandeur and horror. It was a whirlwind that had crossed the Mississippi, and was making its way through the swamp, until it was near the charming prairie, which at that moment afforded rest and comfort to a solitary pedestrian. By the irresistible force of the wind, whole forests were in a moment twisted from the ground, and when thrown from the mouth of the vortex, such was the violent collision of tree against tree, that they were pounded into billets and splinters. A sound of universal distress burst forth from every quarter, and earth and sky appeared to be blended. In a twinkling the tornado scooped up a lake, with two or three feet of mud which lined its bottom. In one instant more, it tore away a house with its stone chimney. In another moment thirty or forty horned cattle, and fifteen or sixteen horses, disappeared with inconceivable quickness.—The whirlwind twisted off almost every spear of a wheat field, and bore it away with the fence, cattle, horses, lake, trees, houses, and whatever was in the way. For more than a mile the heavens were black, and filled with the wreck of the tempest.

In this tornado, as well as many that had before occurred in these countries on a smaller scale, there was nothing to justify a belief with Mr. Dunbar, "of a vortex with a central spot in a state of profound calm;" or of Dr. Franklin, who supposed the "vortex of a whirlwind to be a true vacuum."

From the lake to the house was about two hundred yards, between which stood a huge cotton-wood tree of at least seven feet in diameter, and more than one hundred feet in height. It was observed when the vortex had nearly or quite reached the tree, that the leaves and limbs began to point upwards, and at the same instant of time they were crushed, and ran together, which gave the appearance of a mock body, by which the trunk seemed to be extended; but immediately the trunk was twisted from the stump, leaving about ten feet above ground, when, with a quickness, that the eye could not follow, all ran through the throat of the vortex, and was thrown out to float with others in the regions above.

There was remaining of the stone chimney, about one foot above ground, and not one of the stones removed was to be seen. Whether they were carried up in the vortex and thrown out by the circular impetus of the air, and deposited beyond the reach of observation, we were unable to determine. The water and mud of the lake were deposited on the field which contained the wheat, and from thence to the wood-land beyond the prairie in the direction of the tornado, was about three miles; on which land there were to be found only the bodies of two of the horses and five or six of the cattle. This mighty wreck was seen to pass to the north-west of St. Louis, more than twenty miles above the plantation.

Spectacles Exhibited at Rome by Julius Caesar.—Never before, according to traditions which lasted through several generations in Rome, had there been so vast a conflux of the human race congregated to any one centre, on any one attraction of business or of pleasure, as to Rome on occasion of these spectacles exhibited by Caesar. In our days, the greatest occasional gatherings of the human race are in India, especially at the great fair of the Hurdwar, in the northern part of Hindostan; a confluence of many millions is sometimes seen at that spot, brought together under the mixed influences of devotion and commercial business, and dispersed as rapidly as they had been convoked. Some such spectacle of nations crowding upon nations, and some such Babylonian confusion of dress, complexions, languages, and jargons, was then witnessed at Rome. Accommodations within doors and under roofs of houses, or of temples, was altogether impossible. Myriads of myriads lay stretched on the ground, without even the slight protection of tents, in a vast circuit about the city. Multitudes of men, even senators, and others of the highest rank, were trampled to death in the crowds; and the whole family of man seemed gathered together at the bidding of the Great Dictator.—[Blackwood's Magazine.]

[From the *Comic Offering* for 1833.]

A TRAGIC TALE TOLD TO A "T."

Two tired travellers tried to trace their track through the tangled thickets of Tewksbury; they took two or three turnings through the trees, but their toilings there tended to tantalize them thoroughly, by tempting them to traverse thoroughfares that transiently turned (they thought) toward the town, then the turf terminated treacherously in trackless thickets. Thus they tarried till twilight's thick gloom tended to increase their tribulation, and to thwart their task; the taller traveller, a templar, turning to the tired trooper that trustily tended him, told him that 'twere better to trust themselves to a temporary tent of trees, than to try the tedious and tormenting task of tenaciously toiling through tenebrious thickets. Tristram, the trooper, (though thinking the templar's touch of torpor very tiresome,) tacitly turned to take his horse, thoroughly toilworn; suddenly, tremendous thunder taxed their temerity, and a terrific tempest threatened to terminate tragically their trials. The templar Theodore's timid steed, terrified at the tempestuous tumult, tore through tangled tracts and turgid torrents, the trained troop-horse of Tristram trying to trace the templar through the turmoil. Thus they passed the territory of trees, and the tortured templar was thrown beneath a tower whence a twinkling taper threw a tremulous light through the tracery window of a tall turret. Tristram's thundering "tattoo," summonsed the timely aid of a train of torch-bearers; these took Theodore to the tower-hall, where his trance terminated to show him a transcendent beauty of twenty, timidly tending him, and telling her tire-women their different tasks for treating the sufferer.

The toilet of the lady Theresa consisted of a tiffey tunic, tied with thread-gold tassels at the throat, a taffety torqueo-colored train, a Turkish turban, and transparent tissue veil thrown back from the temples; 'twere tedious to try to transmit the tempting traits that transfused the templar's transported gaze, as, with tremulous tongue, he tried to tell his thanks; timidly she turned from the tender tone, her twining, tendril-like tresses thrown aside betraying the transient tint his tribute to this transcendent treasure had sent thrilling even to her throbbing temples and well-tuned throat.

Theodore transported to the tesselated and tapestry throne-room, told to Theresa tales of the tent, the triumphant tilt and tournament; their *tete-a-tete* tending frequently to tenderer themes; and ten days (tedious to Tristram, transient to Theodore) transported the trembling lover into the troth of Theresa.

Theobald the Thane, the tyrant of Tewksbury, kept the orphan Theresa in thrall, that timid girl tolerating the tutelage he had treacherously taken, through terror of his temper.

The time that the templar tarried at Tewksbury Tower, the absent Thane traversed his vast tract of territory, thinly tenanted through his thirst of thrist and tyrannic treatment to the tenants. Treacherous tempered, he trusted not to Theresa thoroughly, but took the trouble to turn back to the tower, (trans-

* It may not at first be perceived that this article is composed of words commencing with the letter "T," an occasional connecting word has been required, but in the first sixty, for instance, only four will be found which do not commence with a "T,"

formed to a travelling trinket seller,) tampering with the tattling tire-women, who (thus tempted) told that the templar had trespassed over the tower threshold and triumphantly tarried there, talking with taste, talent, tact and tenderness to the tempting "treasure of the turret." This tantalizing tale tormented the tyrant, who, throwing the traveller's travestie towards the terrified tire-women, trod the tower-hall, traced the true lover to their trellised turf terrace, and treacherously thrust his two-edged toledo at the templar, (then talking tranquilly to Theresa;) that tender girl transiently turned ere the threatened turpitude took effect, threw her taper form towards Theodore, too late to transmute the terrible thoughts of the tyrant, whose thrust traversed the twain; and thus they tasted death together, a two-fold triumph to the terrific tempered Theobald.

This triumph terminated tragically. Tristram, entrenched behind thick trees, traced the thane throughout this traitorous transaction, took aim twice; though terror took from the truth of the first, the shaft twisted into a tall tree;—twang!—this time the true dart transfixed the tyrant, terminating his turbulent thralldom. The tumultuous tones of two or three troopers on the turrets, made the trainband throng towards the terrace to take Tristram to the torture; that trusty trooper turned tauntingly to them, throwing his truncheon triumphantly towards the tardily-tamed tyrant, just then the talismanic tone of thrilling trumpets told of timely aid, and twenty templar troops turned round the tower.

The tragic tale terminates thus; because having already used every other kind of T, I could only describe the battle with "Ganpowder T," which might affect the nerves of my fair readers; so here is an end of the *Tease*.

SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.—The following is a list of the signers, with the periods of their death annexed respectively:

Button Gwinnett	Georgia	Died, May 27, 1777
John Morton	Pennsylvania	Dec. 1777
Thomas Lynch, Jr.	South Carolina*	June 12, 1778
Philip Livingston	New York	July 1779
George Ross	Pennsylvania	Nov. 10, 1779
Joseph Hewes	North Carolina	1790
John Hart	New Jersey	Feb. 23, 1781
George Taylor	Pennsylvania	Feb. 28, 1791
Richard Stockton	New Jersey	1783
Cesar Rodney	Delaware	July 13, 1783
Stephen Hopkins	Rhode Island	Nov. 26, 1785
William Whipple	New Hampshire	Jan. 1, 1787
Arthur Middleton	South Carolina	Oct. 8, 1787
Thomas Stone	Maryland	Sept. 1, 1788
John Penn	North Carolina	Jan. 4, 1789
Thomas Nelson, Jr.	Virginia	April 17, 1790
Benjamin Franklin	Pennsylvania	October, 1790
William Hooper	North Carolina	April, 1791
Benjamin Harrison	Virginia	May 8, 1791
Francis Hopkinson	New Jersey	July 23, 1794
Lynn Hall	Georgia	Oct. 8, 1793
Roger Sherman	Connecticut	June 19, 1794
John Hancock	Massachusetts	Nov. 1, 1794
Richard Henry Lee	Virginia	1794
John Witherspoon	New Jersey	May 19, 1795
Abraham Clark	New Jersey	Jan. 8, 1796
Josiah Bartlett	New Hampshire	Oct. 10, 1797
Sam'l Huntington	Connecticut	Dec. 1, 1791
Carter Braxton	Virginia	Jan. 1, 1792
Fr. Lightfoot Lee	Virginia	Aug. 28, 1798
Oliver Wolcott	Connecticut	Feb. 2, 1804
Lewis Morris	New York	May 8, 1806
James Wilson	Pennsylvania	June 8, 1806
George Read	Delaware	March, 1809
William Paca	Maryland	June 24, 1803
Edward Rutledge	South Carolina	Oct. 2, 1803
Matt. Thornton	New Hampshire	Dec. 30, 1803
Samuel Adams	Massachusetts	Feb. 2, 1804
Francis Lewis	New York	May 8, 1806
George Walton	Georgia	June 8, 1806
Robert Morris	Pennsylvania	March, 1809
George Wythe	Virginia	June 19, 1811
James Smith	Pennsylvania	Aug. 2, 1811
Thomas Hayward	South Carolina	Jan. 23, 1813
Samuel Chase	Maryland	April 19, 1813
William Williams	Connecticut	May 14, 1814
George Clymer	Pennsylvania	Nov. 23, 1814
Benjamin Rush	Pennsylvania	June 21, 1817
Robert T. Paine	Massachusetts	Feb. 18, 1819
Elbridge Gerry	Massachusetts	Aug. 4, 1821
Thomas McKean	Delaware	July 4, 1826
William Ellery	Rhode Island	July 4, 1826
William Floyd	New York	July 4, 1826
John Adams	Massachusetts	July 4, 1826
Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	July 4, 1826
Charles Carroll	Maryland	Nov. 4, 1832

* Mr. Lynch and his lady embarked, shortly after the Declaration, on board a vessel bound to St. Eustatia, and nothing more is known of their fate. It is supposed that the vessel was lost, and that all on board perished.

The three most brilliant planets of our system, (Venus, Jupiter, and Mars) may be seen between 5 and 6 o'clock in the evening. Mars is in the east, near the Pleiades and about 18 degrees above the horizon; Jupiter nearly the same distance from the meridian, and Venus in the west, about 12 degrees from the horizon—so that as the observer faces the

south, he has Mars on his left, Jupiter nearly in proud eminence in her relative position with the previous legislation of Congress, in regard to advances by the States, and without any apparent grounds for the change.

—[Alex. Phonix.]

HOME AFFAIRS.

ADJUSTMENT OF THE CLAIMS ON NAPLES.—The U. S. ship Concord, Capt. Perry, has arrived at Portsmouth, N. H. from the Mediterranean, fifty days from Naples. Mr. Nelson, American Charge des Affaires at Naples, is a passenger, and is the bearer of a TREATY, PROVIDING FOR THE PAYMENT OF TWO MILLION ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS, of the claims of the American merchants upon the Neapolitan Government, for spoliations upon our commerce during the occupation of the throne of Naples by Joseph Bonaparte and Murat.

These claims had been swelled to something like 3,000,000, but the estimate was probably a high one, and is supposed that the amount which the government has stipulated to pay, will cover nearly all the fair *bons à faire* claims.

It is stated that the claim had been refused only three days before the present treaty was concluded, and despatches to that effect were actually forwarded to our government by Mr. Nelson.

When we heard before that Mr. Nelson had left Naples, the conclusion we drew was adverse to his success, and the language of the recent message, where it refers to Naples, confirmed us in this conclusion. We are happy to find that it was success, and not failure, which prompted his departure.

The following is a list of the officers returned in the Concord:—Commander, M. C. Perry—Lieutenants, Wm. C. Nicholson, Thomas R. Gerry, James T. Gerry, James H. Ward, J. W. Swift—Acting Master, R. L. Page—Surgeon, James M. Green—Purser, Wm. M' Murtree—Assistant Surgeon, J. W. Plummer—Midshipmen, Dominick Lynch, C. E. L. Griffin, E. C. Ward, C. W. Magruder, N. E. Lane, Oliver H. Perry, John J. Almy, W. C. Spencer, G. N. Hawkins, John Rodgers—Boatswain, Wm. C. Chappel—Carpenter, John Green—Sail Maker, H. Bacon—Gunner, Charles Cobb—Purser's Steward, Henry Hooper.

ARMY MOVEMENTS.—Three more companies of Artillery are we understand ordered to Charleston making in all ten companies, or about 500 men, Col. Bankhead, it is reported, is directed to assume the command there.

ELECTORAL VOTE OF MASSACHUSETTS.—The Electoral College of this State gave its vote for Henry Clay and John Sergeant. James Richardson, Esq., of Dedham, one of the electors, was chosen to bear the votes to Washington.

CONNECTICUT.—The Electors assembled on 5th instant, and voted for Henry Clay and John Sergeant.

NEW JERSEY.—The Electors met at Trenton on 5th instant, and cast their votes for Andrew Jackson and Martin Van Buren.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The thirty electoral votes of that State have been cast for Andrew Jackson and William Wilkins.

Governor Wolf's message is chiefly, as it should be, engrossed by local topics. Of the internal improvements of Pennsylvania it holds this language:

When the whole of the works authorized, and those under contract, shall have been completed, this state will have in her own right, constructed in a period of about seven years, five hundred and ninety-three miles and one hundred and fifteen porches of artificial improvement by canal, and slack water navigation; and one hundred and eighty miles and seventy-two porches of Railroad, making an aggregate of seven hundred and eleven miles and one hundred and eighty-seven porches of internal communication, which for magnificence of design, solidity and neatness in the execution, and for splendid prospects of future productiveness and usefulness, will stand unrivaled, and will place our state upon a

other states of this confederacy.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The Electoral vote, according to the information of the Charleston Courier of 3d inst. was to be given to Mr. Lee, of Boston, for President, and Mr. Clayton, of Georgia, for Vice President.

NORTH CAROLINA.—David L. Swain has been elected Governor of the State for the ensuing year. Though young (says the National Intelligence), he has the reputation of being one of the first men in the State, as he was, at the time of his election, one of its most respectable Judges. The Constitutionalist gives the following account of the singular contest which this election exhibited:

"The election for Governor was obstinately contested for three days by three parties. The candidates at the first balloting were, Messrs. Spaight (R. D.), Branch, and Polk (T. G.), which took place on Thursday; the result was, for Spaight 73, Branch 56, and Polk 51. On the second balloting, Spaight 90, and Branch 59 votes. Col. Polk having withdrawn, the blanks numbered 50. On Friday, David L. Swain, Esq., one of the Judges of the Superior Court, was placed in nomination: there were three ballottings on that day; the result of the first ballot was, Spaight 80, Swain 56, Branch 53. On the second ballot, Spaight received 75, Swain 61, and Branch 53 votes. On the third, Spaight 77, Swain 60, and Branch 55. On Saturday there were two ballottings. Mr. Branch having withdrawn, Judge Swain and Mr. Spaight only remained in nomination; the former received 93 votes on the first ballot, and the latter 84; on the second and last ballot, Judge Swain obtained 99 votes, and Spaight 85. Judge Swain, having received a majority of the whole number of votes, was elected."

Mr. Monk has introduced into the House of Commons a resolution calling upon the Senators and Representatives in Congress from that State "to use their best endeavors to call a General Convention of the States of this Confederacy, to take into consideration all articles in the present Constitution of the United States susceptible of misconstruction, and give such an interpretation of the same, as will save the Union from anarchy."

The Electoral vote of this State was unanimous for Jackson and Van Buren.

VIRGINIA.—On the 5th inst. (says the Richmond Whig) the Electoral College of Virginia assembled in the Capitol, and cast the vote of the State for Andrew Jackson as President, and Martin Van Buren as Vice President, of the United States.

CONGRESS

In Senate, on 5th instant, Messrs. Buckner, of Missouri, and Ruggles, of Ohio, attended and took their seats. The President laid before the Senate a communication from the Secretary of the Navy, showing the condition of the Navy Hospital and Navy Pension Funds, which was ordered to be printed—after which the Senate adjourned.

In the House of Representatives the Journal of the preceding day was read, and then the House adjourned.

Thursday, December 6.

The President laid before the Senate the following Message from the President of the United States:

WASHINGTON, DEC. 6, 1832.

To the Senate of the United States:

I avail myself of the early opportunity to return to the Senate, in which it originated, a bill entitled "An Act providing for the final settlement of the claims of States, for interest on advances to the United States during the late war," with the reasons which induced me to withhold my approbation, in consequence of which it has failed to be made a law.

This bill was presented to me for my signature on the last day of your session, and when I was compelled to consider a variety of other bills, of greater urgency to the public service. It obviously embraced a principle in the allowance of interest different from that which had been sanctioned by the practice of the accounting officers, or by the

previous legislation of Congress, in regard to advances by the States, and without any apparent grounds for the change.

Previously to giving my sanction to so great an extension of the practice of allowing interest upon accounts with the Government, and which, in its consequences and from analogy, might not only call for large payments from the Treasury, but disturb the great mass of individual accounts long since finally settled, I deemed it my duty to make a more thorough investigation of the subject than it was possible for me to do previously to the close of your last session. I adopted this course the more readily, from the consideration that, as the bill contained no appropriation, the States which would have been entitled to claim its benefits, could not have received them without the further legislation of Congress.

The principle which this bill authorizes varies not only from the practice uniformly adopted by many of the accounting officers, in the case of individual accounts, and in those of the States, finally settled and closed previously to your last session, but also from that pursued under the act of your last session, for the adjustment and settlement of the claims of the State of South Carolina. This last act prescribed no particular mode for the allowance of interest, which, therefore, in conformity with the directions of Congress in previous cases, and with the uniform practice of the Auditor, by whom the account was settled, was computed on the sums expended by the State of South Carolina, for the use and benefit of the United States, and which had been repaid to the State, and the payments made by the United States were deducted from the principal sums, exclusive of the interest: thereby stopping future interest on as much of the principal as had been reimbursed by the payment.

I deem it proper moreover to observe, that both under the act of 5th August, 1790, and that of the 12th February, 1793, authorizing the settlement of the accounts between the United States and the individual States, arising out of the war of the revolution, the interest on those accounts was computed, in conformity with the practice already adverted to, and from which the bill now returned is a departure.

With these reasons and considerations, I return the bill to the Senate. ANDREW JACKSON.

The following resolution was submitted by Mr. Benton:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be directed to communicate to the Senate the monthly statements of the affairs of the Bank of the United States from June to November inclusively.

The Senate proceeded to the consideration of Executive business, and after a short time spent therein, the doors were opened, when The Senate adjourned to Monday.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

The Speaker laid before the House the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which was referred to the appropriate Committees, and 10,000 copies ordered to be printed.

The accounts of the Public Receipts and Expenditures for the year 1831, from the Treasury Department, and the statement of the Pension Funds from the Navy Department, were severally ordered to be laid on the table.

Harbor Bill of last Session.—A message was received from the President of the United States, by A. J. Donelson, Esq. his Private Secretary, stating his reasons for withholding his signature to the bill presented to him at the close of the last session, for the improvement of certain Harbors, and the navigation of certain Rivers, accompanied with a Report from the Engineer Department, designating such works as were regarded as of a national character. Referred to the Committee on Roads and Canals.

Mr. E. Everett submitted the following resolution, which lies on the table one day:

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to communicate to this House, as far as the public service will permit, such portions as have not heretofore been communicated, of the instructions given to our Ministers in France, on the subject of claims for spoliations, and of the correspondence of the said Ministers with the French Government, and with the Secretary of State of the United States on the same subject.

On motion of Mr. E. Whittlesey, the House then went into the election of Sergeant-at-Arms.

Twenty-seven candidates were nominated.

At the first ballot the highest number of votes given for any candidate was 19.

On the second ballot 22 was the highest number.

At the third ballot the highest number for either candidate was 28.

The fourth resulted in a similar manner, the

highest candidate having but 35 votes—90 being necessary for a choice.

The House, without balloting further, then adjourned over to Monday.

Congress.—Neither house sat either on Friday or Saturday. There is, we suppose, no public business; else, it is to be presumed, the early days of a short session would not be wholly thrown away.

Ohio.—The Legislature met at Columbus on the 3d inst. *Samuel R. Miller* was, on the third ballot, elected Speaker *pro tem* of the Senate. *David T. Disney* was elected, 55 to 13, Speaker of the House—both friends of the general administration. Gov. *McArthur's* message was transmitted on the 4th; it enters into interesting details respecting various undertakings of the State, its finances, &c. The whole length of Canals now navigable in Ohio is 400 miles. The canal from the River to Lake Erie, of 334 miles, is completed, with the exception of a single lock on the river. The whole canal debt of the State is \$4,834,848: the annual interest payable thereon is about \$285,000. The nett receipts from tolls for the past year was \$104,302.

The militia of the State is rated at 126,421.

Custom House and Post Office.—It is now made certain that the Secretary of the Treasury has purchased for government a Site for a Custom House and Post Office. Besides the ground which we mentioned as having been bought, a few days since, here is to be added the lots on which stand the two buildings west of the Branch Bank, for which the sum of \$92,000.00 has been paid. The whole lot on Wall and Pine streets will therefore be 104 feet front, and 150 deep. In addition to the two offices mentioned above, the building will contain offices for the District Court and Judge, Attorney Marshal, &c. thus combining all the offices of the General Government in one location. No man of business will complain of this arrangement.—[Gazette.]

[President's Proclamation, continued from page 800.]

pact, but it is an offence against the whole Union. To say that any State may at pleasure secede from the Union, is to say that the United States are not a nation; because it would be a solecism to contend that any part of a nation might dissolve its connexion with the other parts, to their injury or ruin, without committing any offence. Secession, like any other revolutionary act, may be morally justified by the extremity of oppression; but to call it a Constitutional right, is confounding the meaning of terms, and can only be done through gross error, or to deceive those who are willing to assert a right, but would pause before they made a revolution or incur the penalties consequent on a failure.

Because the Union was formed by compact, it is said the parties to that compact may, when they feel themselves aggrieved, depart from it: but it is precisely because it is a compact that they cannot. A compact is an agreement or binding obligation. It may by its terms have a sanction or penalty for its breach, or it may not. If it contains no sanction, it may be broken with no other consequence than moral guilt: if it have a sanction, then the breach incurs the designated or implied penalty. A league between independent nations generally has no sanction other than a moral one; or, if it should contain a penalty, as there is no common superior, it cannot be enforced. A Government, on the contrary, always has a sanction, express or implied; and, in our case, it is both necessarily implied and expressly given. An attempt by force of arms to destroy a Government, is an offence, by whatever means the constitutional compact may have been formed; and such Government has the right, by the law of self-defence, to pass acts for punishing the offender, unless that right is modified, restrained or resumed by the constitutional act. In our system, although it is modified in the case of treason, yet authority is expressly given to pass all laws necessary to carry its powers into effect, and under this grant provision has been made for punishing acts which obstruct the due administration of the laws.

It would seem superfluous to add any thing to show the nature of that union which connects us; but as erroneous opinions on this subject are the foundation of doctrines the most destructive to our peace, I must give some further developement to my views on this subject. No one, fellow-citizens, has a higher re-

ference for the reserved rights of the States, than the Magistrate who now addresses you. No one would make greater personal sacrifices, or official exertions, to defend them from violation; but equal care must be taken to prevent on their part an improper interference with, or resumption of, the rights they have vested in the nation. The line has not been so distinctly drawn as to avoid doubt in some cases of the exercise of power. Men of the best intentions and soundest views may differ in their construction of some parts of the Constitution; but there are others on which dispassionate reflection can leave no doubt. Of this nature appears to be the assumed right of secession. It rests, as we have seen, on the alleged undivided sovereignty of the States, and on their having formed in this sovereign capacity a compact which is called the Constitution, from which, because they made it, they have the right to secede. Both of these positions are erroneous, and some of the arguments to prove them so have been anticipated.

The States severally have not retained their entire sovereignty. It has been shown that in becoming parts of a nation, not members of a league, they surrendered many of their essential parts of sovereignty. The right to make treaties—declare war—levy taxes—exercise exclusive judicial and legislative powers—were all of their functions of sovereign power. The States, then, for all these important purposes, were no longer sovereign. The allegiance of their citizens was transferred in the first instance to the Government of the United States—they became American citizens, and owed obedience to the Constitution of the United States, and to laws made in conformity with the powers it vested in Congress. This last position has not been, and cannot be denied. How then can that State be said to be sovereign and independent whose citizens owe obedience to laws not made by it, and whose magistrates are sworn to disregard those laws, when they come in contact with those passed by another? What shows conclusively that the States cannot be said to have reserved an undivided sovereignty, is that they expressly ceded the right to punish treason, not treason against their separate power but treason against the United States. Treason is an offence against sovereignty, and sovereignty must reside with the power to punish it. But the reserved rights of the States are not less sacred because they have for their common interest made the General Government the depository of these powers. The unity of our political character (as has been shown for another purpose) commenced with its very existence. Under the Royal Government we had no separate character; our opposition to its oppression began as UNITED COLONIES.

We were the UNITED STATES under the confederation, and the name was perpetuated and the Union rendered more perfect by the Federal Constitution. In none of these stages did we consider ourselves in any other light than as forming one nation. Treaties and alliances were made in the name of all. Troops were raised for the joint defence. How then, with all these proofs, that under all changes of our position, we had, for designated purposes and with defined powers, created national Governments—how is it that the most perfect of those several modes of union should now be considered as a mere league that may be dissolved at pleasure? It is from an abuse of terms. Compact is used as synonymous with league, although the true term is not employed, because it would at once show the fallacy of the reasoning. It would not do to say that our Constitution was only a league, but it is labored to prove it compact, (which in one sense it is) and then to argue that, as a league is a compact, every compact between nations must of course be a league, and that from such an engagement every sovereign power has a right to recede. But it has been shewn that in this sense the States are not sovereign, and that even if they were, and the national Constitution had been formed by compact, there would be no right in any one State to exonerate itself from its obligations.

So obvious are the reasons which forbid this secession, that it is necessary only to allude to them. The Union was formed for the benefit of all. It was produced by mutual sacrifices of interests and opinions. Can those sacrifices be recalled? Can the states who magnanimously surrendered their title to the territories of the west, recal the grant? Will the inhabitants of the inland states agree to pay the duties that may be imposed without their assent by those on the Atlantic or the Gulf, for their own benefit? Shall there be a free port in one state, and onerous duties in another? No one believes that any right exists in a single state to involve all the others in these and countless evils, contrary to engagements solemnly made. Every one must see that the other states, in self-defence, must oppose it at all hazards.

These are the alternatives that are presented by the Convention: A repeal of all the acts for raising revenue, leaving the Government without the means of support; or an acquiescence in the dissolution of our

Union, by the secession of one of its members. When the first was proposed, it was known that it could not be listened to for a moment. It was known if force was applied to oppose the execution of the laws that it must be repelled by force—that congress could not, without involving itself in disgrace and the country in ruin, accede to the proposition: and yet if this is not done in a given day, or if any attempt is made to execute the laws, the State is, by the Ordinance, declared to be out of the Union. The majority of a Convention assembled for the purpose, have dictated these terms, or rather this rejection of all terms, in the name of the people of South Carolina. It is true that the Governor of the State speaks of the submission of their grievances to a convention of all the States; which he says they "sincerely and anxiously seek and desire." Yet this obvious and constitutional mode of obtaining the sense of the other States on the construction of the federal compact, and amending it, if necessary, has never been attempted by those who have urged the State on to this destructive measure. The State might have proposed the call for a general convention to the other States; and Congress, if a sufficient number of them concurred, must have called it. But the first Magistrate of South Carolina, when he expressed a hope that, "on a review by Congress and the functionaries of the General Government of the merits of the controversy," such a Convention will be accorded to them, must have known that neither Congress nor any functionary of the General Government has authority to call such a Convention, unless it be demanded by two-thirds of the States. This suggestion then, is another instance of the reckless inattention to the provisions of the Constitution with which this crisis has been madly hurried on; or of the attempt to persuade the people that a constitutional remedy had been sought and refused. If the legislature of South Carolina "anxiously desire" a General Convention to consider their complaints, why have they not made application for it in the way the Constitution points out? The assertion that they "earnestly seek" it is completely negatived by the omission.

This, then, is the position in which we stand. A small majority of the citizens of one State in the Union have elected delegates to a State Convention: that Convention has ordained that all the revenue laws of the United States must be repealed, or that they are no longer a member of the Union. The Governor of that State has recommended to the legislature the raising of an army to carry the secession into effect, and that he may be empowered to give clearances to vessels in the name of the State. No act of violent opposition to the laws has yet been committed, but such a state of things is hourly apprehended; and it is the intent of this instrument to PROCLAIM, not only that the duty imposed on me by the Constitution, "to take care that the laws be faithfully executed," shall be performed to the extent of the powers already vested in me by law, or of such others as the wisdom of Congress shall devise and entrust to me for that purpose; but to warn the citizens of S'th Carolina, who have been deluded into an opposition to the laws, of the danger they will incur by obedience to the illegal and disorganizing Ordinance of the Convention,—to exhort those who have refused to support it to persevere in their determination to uphold the Constitution and laws of their country,—and to point out to all, the perilous situation into which the good people of the State have been led,—and that the course they are urged to pursue is one of ruin and disgrace to the very State whose rights they affect to support.

Fellow citizens of my native State!—let me not only admonish you, as the first magistrate of our common country, not to incur the penalty of its laws, but use the influence that a Father would over his children whom he saw rushing to certain ruin. In that paternal language, with that paternal feeling, let me tell you, my countrymen, that you are deluded by men who are either deceived themselves or wish to deceive you. Mark under what pretences you have

been led on to the brink of insurrection and treason, on which you stand! First a diminution of the value of your staple commodity, lowered by over-production in other quarters, and the consequent diminution in the value of your lands, were the sole effect of the Tariff laws. The effect of those laws was confessedly injurious, but the evil was greatly exaggerated by the unfounded theory you were taught to believe, that its burthens were in proportion to your exports, not to your consumption of imported articles. Your pride was roused by the assertion that a submission to those laws was a state of vassalage, and that resistance to them was equal, in patriotic merit, to the opposition our Fathers offered to the oppressive laws of Great Britain. You were told that this opposition might be peaceably, might be constitutionally made—that you might enjoy all the advantages of the Union and bear none of its burthens. Eloquent appeals to your passions, to your State-pride, to your native courage, to your sense of real injury, were used to prepare you for the period when the mask which concealed the hideous features of disunion should be taken off. It fell, and you were made to look with complacency on objects which not long since you would have regarded with horror. Look back to the arts which have brought you to this state—look forward to the consequences to which it must inevitably lead! Look back to what was first told you as an inducement to enter into this dangerous course. The great political truth was repeated to you, that you had the revolutionary right of resisting all laws that were palpably unconstitutional and intolerably oppressive—it was added that the right to nullify a law rested on the same principle, but that it was a peaceable remedy! This character which was given to it, made you receive with too much confidence the assertions that were made of the unconstitutionality of the law and its oppressive effects. Mark, my fellow citizens, that by the admission of your leaders the unconstitutionality must be *palpable*, or it will not justify either resistance or nullification. What is the meaning of the word *palpable* in the sense in which it is here used?—that which is apparent to every one, that which no man of ordinary intellect will fail to perceive. Is the unconstitutionality of these laws of that description? Let these among your leaders who once approved and advocated the principle of protective duties, answer the question; and let them choose whether they will be considered as incapable, then, of perceiving that which must have been apparent to every man of common understanding, or as imposing upon your confidence and endeavoring to mislead you now. In either case, they are unsafe guides in the perilous path they urge you to tread.

Ponder well on this circumstance, and you will know how to appreciate the exaggerated language they address to you. They are not champions of Liberty, emulating the fame of our Revolutionary Fathers,—nor are you an oppressed people contending, as they repeat to you, against worse than colonial vassalage. You are free members of a flourishing and happy Union. There is no settled design to oppress you. You have indeed felt the unequal operation of laws which may have been unwise, not unconstitutionally passed; but that inequality must necessarily be removed. At the very moment when you were madly urged on to the unfortunate course you have begun, a change in public opinion had commenced. The nearly approaching payment of the public debt, and the consequent necessity of a diminution of duties, had already produced a considerable reduction, and that too on some articles of general consumption in your State. The importance of this change was underrated, and you were authoritatively told that no further alleviation of your burthens was to be expected at the very time when the condition of the country imperiously demanded such a modification of the duties as should reduce them to a just and equitable scale. But, as if apprehensive of the effect of this change in allaying your dis-

contents, you were precipitated into the fearful state in which you now find yourselves.

I have urged you to look back to the means that were used to hurry you on to the position you have now assumed, and forward to the consequences it will produce. Something more is necessary. Contemplate the condition of that country of which you still form an important part!—consider its government, uniting in one bond of common interest and general protection so many different States—giving to all their inhabitants the proud title of **AMERICAN CITIZEN**—protecting their commerce—securing their literature and their arts—facilitating their intercommunication—defending their frontiers—and making their name respected in the remotest parts of the earth! Consider the extent of its territory, its increasing and happy population, its advance in arts which render life agreeable, and the sciences which elevate the mind! See education spreading the lights of religion, morality, and general information into every cottage in this wide extent of our Territories and States! Behold it as the asylum where the wretched and oppressed find a refuge and support! Look on this picture of happiness and honor, and say—**we, too, ARE CITIZENS OF AMERICA**; Carolina is one of these proud States—her arms have defended, her best blood has cemented this happy Union! And then add, if you can, without horror and remorse, this happy Union we will dissolve—this picture of peace and prosperity we will deface—this free intercourse we will interrupt—these fertile fields we will deluge with blood—the protection of that glorious flag we renounce—the very name of Americans we discard. And for what, mistaken men! for what do you throw away these inestimable blessings—for what would you exchange your share in the advantages and honor of the Union? For the dream of a separate independence—a dream interrupted by bloody conflicts with your neighbors, and a vile dependence on a foreign power? If your leaders could succeed in establishing a separation, what would be your situation? Are you united at home—are you free from the apprehensions of civil discord, with all its fearful consequences? Do our neighboring republics, every day suffering some new revolution or contending with some new insurrection—do they excite your envy? But the dictates of a high duty oblige me solemnly to announce that you cannot succeed. The laws of the United States must be executed. I have no discretionary power on the subject—my duty is emphatically pronounced in the Constitution. Those who told you that you might peaceably prevent their execution, deceived you—they could not have been deceived themselves. They know that a forcible opposition could alone prevent the execution of the laws, and they know that such opposition must be repelled. Their object is disunion: but be not deceived by names: disunion, by armed force, is **TREASON**. Are you really ready to incur its guilt? If you are, on the heads of the instigators of the act be the dreadful consequences—on their heads be the dishonor, but on yours may fall the punishment—on your unhappy State will inevitably fall all the evils of the conflict you force upon the Government of your country. It cannot accede to the mad project of disunion, of which you would be the first victims—its first Magistrate cannot, if he would, avoid the performance of his duty—the consequence must be fearful for you, distressing to your fellow citizens here, and to the friends of good government throughout the world. Its enemies have beheld our prosperity with a vexation they could not conceal—it was a standing refutation of their slavish doctrines, and they will point to our discord with the triumph of malignant joy. It is yet in your power to disappoint them. There is yet time to show that the descendants of the Pinckneys, the Sumpters, the Rutleges, and of the thousand other names which adorn the pages of your revolutionary history, will not abandon that Union, to support which so many of them fought and bled and died. I adjure you as you honor their memory—as you love the

cause of freedom, to which they dedicated their lives—as you prize the peace of your country, the lives of its best citizens, and your own fair fame, to retrace your steps. Snatch from the archives of your State the disorganizing edict of its Convention—bid its members to re-assemble and promulgate the decided expressions of your will to remain in the path which alone can conduct you to safety, prosperity and honor—tell them that compared to disunion, all other evils are light, because that brings with it an accumulation of all—declare that you will never take the field unless the star spangled banner of your country shall float over you—that you will not be stigmatized when dead, and dishonored and scorned while you live, as the authors of the first attack on the Constitution of your country! Its destroyers you cannot be. You may disturb its peace—you may interrupt the course of its prosperity—you may cloud its reputation for stability—but its tranquility will be restored, its prosperity will return, and the stain upon its national character will be transferred, and remain an eternal blot on the memory of those who caused the disorder.

Fellow citizens of the United States! The threat of unshamed disunion—the names of those, once respected, by whom it is uttered—the array of military force to support it—denote the approach of a crisis in our affairs on which the continuance of our unexampled prosperity, our political existence, and perhaps that of all free governments, may depend. The conjecture demanded a free, a full and explicit enunciation, not only of my intentions but of my principles of action; and as the claim was asserted of a right by a State to annul the laws of the Union and even to secede from it at pleasure, a frank exposition of my opinions in relation to the origin and form of our government, and the construction I give to the instrument by which it was created, seemed to be proper. Having the fullest confidence in the justness of the legal and constitutional opinion of my duties which has been expressed, I rely with equal confidence on your undivided support in my determination to execute the laws—to preserve the Union by all constitutional means—to arrest, if possible, by moderate but firm measures, the necessity of a recourse to force; and, if it be the will of Heaven that the recurrence of its primeval curse on man for the shedding of a brother's blood should fall upon our land, that it be not called down by any offensive act on the part of the United States.

Fellow-citizens! The momentous case is before you. On your undivided support of your government depends the decision of the great question it involves, whether your sacred Union will be preserved, and the blessing it secures to us as one people shall be perpetuated. No one can doubt that the unanimity with which that decision will be expressed, will be such as to inspire new confidence in Republican institutions, and that the prudence, the wisdom, and the courage, which it will bring to their defense, will transmit them unimpaired and invigorated to our children.

May the Great Ruler of Nations grant that the signal blessings with which he has favored ours, may not by the madness of party or personal ambition be disregarded and lost; and may His Wise Providence bring those who have produced this crisis, to see the folly, before they feel the misery of civil strife; and inspire a returning veneration for that Union which, if we may dare to penetrate His designs, He has chosen as the only means of attaining the high destinies to which we may reasonably aspire.

In testimony whereof, I have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed, having signed the same with my hand.
Done at the City of Washington this 10th day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two, and of the Independence of the United States the fifty-seventh.

ANDREW JACKSON.

By the President:

EDW. LIVINGSTON, Secretary of State.

[From the *Courier and Enquirer*.]

TURKEY AND THE BLACK SEA.—We have received from Constantinople the following account of the commerce carried on through the important passage of the Dardanelles:

The number of vessels of different nations which have entered (during the quarter ending on the last of June) the passage of the Dardanelles, is 939, all under foreign flags, of which 342 had cargoes, mostly for the city of Constantinople, and 597 were in ballast, nearly all for the Black Sea.

There arrived from the Black Sea during the same time 477 vessels, of which 392 were loaded with wheat, 24 with barley, 16 with oats, 3 with tallow, 3 with salt, 31 with mixed cargoes, and 8 in ballast. A few only of these vessels stopped at Constantinople, with cargoes of inferior grain, the rest proceeded into the Mediterranean, and 3 to England.

The tonnage of vessels which proceeded into the Black sea, is on an average, about 200 tons each vessel.

The articles shipped from Constantinople are, for the most part opium, silk, otto of roses, mohair yarn, goats' wool, gall nuts, hare skins, yellow wax.—These are valuable and light articles, and occupy but little space. Box-wood, sheep's wool, and filberts, are taken to fill up the cargoes.

Nearly all the goods shipped from Constantinople are the produce of Russia and the countries bordering on the Black Sea.

It has been ascertained that the flags which have entered the port of Constantinople from the Black Sea during the period mentioned, are as follows:—Russian 185, Austrian, 97; English, 32; Sardinian, 102; Ionian, 47; French, 5; American, 1; Neapolitan, 5; Tuscan, 2; Dutch, 1.

During the same period there entered from the Dardanelles, Russians, 305; Austrian, 186; English, 109; Sardinian, 208; Ionian, 63; French, 44; Americans, 8; Neapolitan, 7; Danish, 1; Tuscan, 5; Dutch, 3.

The number of vessels of different nations which have departed during the three months stated, are as follows:—Russians, 103; Austrian, 72; Sardinian, 32; English, 46; French, 13; Ionian, 39; Neapolitan, 3; American, 5; Dutch, 2; Tuscan, 3. Of these vessels only 4 passed the Straits of Gibraltar, to wit: 3 for London, and 1 for New York.

The Greek vessels, of which there are many in this trade, are covered by the Russian, Ionian, English and Sardinian flags.

The voyages are generally circuitous, cargoes are taken to Smyrna and there deposited for sale; the vessel then proceeds to the Black Sea, takes in a load of grain for some port in the Mediterranean, and returns to Smyrna in time to take in a cargo of fruit.

There is always a demand in Constantinople for sugar, coffee, and American cottons, unbleached and suitable for coarse shirts and trowsers. They all yield a good profit.

The duties are as follows:

Coffee 4 aspers per oke, valued at	1200
Powdered Sugar 210 aspers per cwt.	18000
Domestic Cottons 80 aspers per piece	7200
3 aspers 1 para; 40 paras 1 piaster; 18 piasters 1 Spanish dollar.	The oke is between 2 1/2 and 2 3/4 pounds.

NEW-YORK AMERICAN.

DECEMBER 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14—1833.

LITERARY NOTICES.

A TREATISE ON THE MILLENNIUM, &c.; by GEO. BUSH, author of *Questions upon Genesis and Exodus*; 1 vol.: N. York, J. & J. HARPER.—If patient research, much learning, apparent sincerity in seeking the truth, and earnestness to advance the cause of true religion, can elucidate that which is in its nature most mysterious, and impart to language highly figurative and emblematical a clear and settled application, the author of the treatise now before us may hope to have succeeded. His main purpose, after establishing more accurate notions than are usually entertained of what should be understood by the Millennium, seems to be, to prove that that period, looked to by so many as future, *has passed*—that the *Chiliad*, or thousand years, which compose it, commenced about two centuries after the triumphant establishment of the Christian religion under Constantine, and terminated with the capture of

Constantinople by the Turks in 1453; and finally, however revolting to the reader be the conclusion "that the Apocalyptic Millennium which he has always conceived as but another name for the golden age of the church, actually synchronizes with the most calamitous period of her annals."

We are too little versed in such investigations to venture an opinion upon the justness of Mr. Bush's conclusions; but we admire his zeal, and, because we believe it sincere, can read without a smile the confident language in which a fallible being pronounces (at p. 88) as to "the first intention of the Holy Ghost" in putting certain expressions into the mouth of John; and are both surprised and amused by finding Gibbon made a striking but involuntary witness in many passages quoted from the Decline and Fall, to establish the truth of the Revelations, and of Mr. Bush's explanation of this particular feature of it. It is indeed said in a note, that "the Christian Church has afforded few expositors of the book of Revelations so valuable as Gibbon!"

Our readers will we think be pleased with the extract we annex, and which concludes Chap. III of the work. It presents the Christian religion in a somewhat new and attractive light:

One or two reflections may not unsuitably conclude the present division of our work.

1. The train of remark submitted to the reader in the foregoing exposition may have the effect, it is presumed, of deepening the conviction, that the religion of the Bible is no foe to civil freedom; that it can never be made, without the most flagrant perversion, the pander to oppression in any sense or in any degree. That Christianity has been made, by abuse, an engine of the most dire and diabolical persecution is unhappily put beyond the possibility of being questioned. The history of the ages of darkness furnishes a dreary and soul-sickening record of the fact. But that this circumstance affords the least argument of the legitimate tendencies of the gospel of Jesus cannot be maintained for a moment. The true and essential genius of Christianity repudiates with mortal abhorrence every alliance with civil power which would convert her into an engine of disastrous domination. Can the mystical woman of the vision fall in love with the terrific Dragon by whom she is assaulted? Are they not set in the most direct antagonism with each other? And under this significant imagery is not the brandmark of eternal reprobation set upon the entire apparatus of despotism? Is not its final overthrow, its utter extinction, clearly predicted in the oracles of the prophets?—and that too as an indispensable prerequisite to the final prevalence of the Gospel? How then can Christianity be friendly to or compatible with a system upon the ruins of which it is destined to rise, and the annihilation of which is the signal of its own success? The truth is, the spirit of Christianity is not more opposed to vice than it is to vassalage; to moral corruption than to political degradation.

2. Shall not a more favorable impression be gotten in behalf of Christianity from the fact, that it contemplates man not merely in his individual, but in his social capacities and interests?—that in the amplitude of its beneficence it takes cognizance of those great and massive calamities which weigh upon the welfare of society; which have encumbered and retarded the march of the human mind; which have hung their ponderous weights upon the wheels of its progress;—in a word, that it abounds with predictions and promises, not only of the removal of those evils which encompass and annoy the individual believer, but of those also which have been the most signal curses to the communities of the earth? We repeat it then, that we are authorized to regard in the light of the accomplishment of the divine counsels the existing commotions which are causing the dynasties of Europe to totter on their rotten bases, and which are prompting the monarchs to clap their hands to their heads to hold on their crowns. Potentates are perplexed by the signs in heaven and the signs on earth. But why? Simply because God has illustriously arisen, and begun to show to the world that the *Gospel is the Genius of Universal Emancipation*. The human race is awakening to the conviction, that there is not a throne on earth but is built upon the prostrate liberties of mankind; and kings have cause to tremble at the results of the discovery. It is for this reason that they dread to refer themselves to

the coming on of time. "Coming events cast their shadows before," and they are filled with secret apprehensions of an impending stroke which shall fall with resistless weight upon the coronets of despots, and scatter their diamonds in the dust. It is then to the pages of this precious revelation that we are to look for a key to the signs of the times; for a solution of all the marvels connected with that *magnus ordo rerum*, that stupendous moral and political revolution, which is so rapidly changing the face of human affairs, and introducing the inextinguishable empire of righteousness. It is on this account only that we deem the explication of the hieroglyphics of the Apocalypse as at all important. Viewed in any other light than as affording an index to the true character of the period in which we live, and its connected duties, we might as well bestow our labor in laying before our readers, for the purpose of comment, the imagery of the Shield of Achilles, or of the Zodiac of Dendera, or the architectural details of Solomon's Temple. But when rightly construed, the mystic shadows of the Seer of Patmos resolve themselves, like the hand-writing on the walls of Belshazzar's palace, into the death-doom of despotism, and the Magna Charta of the liberties of the world.

A MEMOIR OF FELIX NEFF, PASTOR OF THE HIGH ALPS, &c. &c. By WM. STEPHEN GILLEY, M. A. Philad. *Corey & Lea.*—The interest with which the narrative of the life and labors of *Oberlin*, in his wild *Ban de la Roche*, was received, will insure to this simple memoir of one who once trod in the same high, responsible, and difficult sphere, a cordial welcome. To us the name of *Felix Neff* comes for the first time in this little volume. Born in the mountains of Switzerland, and for a time serving as a private soldier, he felt, from his earliest youth, a strong vocation to preach the Gospel; and his early habits and associations led him particularly to desire to do so, in mountain regions, and to simple minds. His labors, accordingly, were among a small, poor, but thankful remnant of the primitive Christians, who, protected by the almost inaccessible mountains, the sterile soil of Dauphiny, or as it is now called, the Department of the High Alps in France, escaped both the corruptions of the Church of Rome, and the persecutions of its secular arm. Here his labors began, here, after a few short years, in which he accumulated the labors, and spent the energies of a longer life: they ended in 1829. The zeal, the purity, the good results, and the great difficulties of his short and self-devoted career, are related with great simplicity and great admiration, by a dignitary of the English Church, who was led, by hearing of the character and labors of Neff, to visit (the second Englishman, as he tells us, who ever did so) the isolated scene of his ministry.

CHRISTMAS TOKEN; or New Testament Scenes, published by Peter Hill, Broadway, is a collection of incidents from the New Testament, illustrated by wood-cuts, for the edification of young children.

TALES AND NOVELS, BY MARIA EDGEWORTH; VOL. II, uniform edition: New York, J. & J. HARPER.—A cheap, well executed, stereotype edition, like this, comprising the eighteen volumes of the English edition of Miss Edgeworth's works in nine, and afforded at a low price, must command a ready sale. The present volume contains *Angelina*, the good French *Governess*, *Mdlle. Panache*, the *Knapsack*, *Lama Jervas*, the *Will*, the *Limerick Gloves*, *Out of debt out of danger*, the *Lottery*, and *Rosanna*.

THE REFUGEE IN AMERICA, by Frances Trollope, 3 vols. is thus disposed of by the London Literary Gazette:—

As a whole, these volumes, which we have now seen complete, do not sustain the liveliness of parts. Many of the sketches of American manners are repetitions of Mrs. Trollope's former work; the story is wire-drawn, and at last improbable; and the horror of Lord Darcy's situation when in Dallas' hands, is very gratuitous. We have before expressed our reprehension of the tone of exaggeration and ill nature taken on all Transatlantic subjects; and there is nothing in this work to call for further remark.

LECTURES ON RHETORIC AND BELLES LETTRES, chiefly from the Lectures of Dr. Blair.—By Abram Mills, A. M. Mr. Mills, whose improved edition of Alison on Taste, is in considerable demand, has been engaged upon this work for some time, and we remember announcing it for publication with much pleasure a year or more since. The work, upon examination, will not disappoint those who have been looking for it as a valuable assistant in the department of learning of which it treats.—Among the improvements may be mentioned *Analyses* affixed to each Lecture, in the form of a review, which are intended to give arrangement and precision to the acquisitions of the student when he shall have learned the text, and also a series of Questions made up from the work itself, in the very language of the original lecture, and affixed to the bottom of each page. The additions to the text, consist of critical notices of writers, both English and American, whose works were not numbered among the classics when Dr. Blair wrote.—Mr. Mills, we understand, is already engaged upon another work on a kindred subject, which will form a sequel to the present.

THE COMPLETE POETICAL WORKS OF JOANNA BAILLIE; 1 vol.: Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.—It does not say much for the taste of our reading circles, that this should be only the first American edition of writings which have so long held an elevated place in the favor of the British public. Few among us know anything more of Miss Baillie than that she is the author of the popular song of "The Chough and Crow," and many not even that; and it is the same case with others of the best works that appear abroad. An international copyright law will remedy all this, and, while it gives native authors some chance of competing in the market with foreign writers, it will have a tendency to throw European books in our way, which the publishers now take no means of recommending to American readers. The measure, in whatever country it originates,—we trust it may be in ours,—will be one of the noblest, most far-sighted and civilized acts that any Government has adopted since the revival of letters: for the only "protection" that literature requires is, that its votaries should have the fair product of their talents secured to them, as are any other fruits of their exertions to their producers. Nor in our day, and in our country, where the first lesson taught in life is economy in all its pursuits, will any large portion of that ability with which all the learned professions are now overstocked, seek its just and natural outlet,—that of literary production, until the results of literary labor are placed upon the same footing as those of other honest exertion. But to return from this digression to what is immediately before us, we take much pleasure in recommending Miss Baillie's writings to those not already acquainted with them. Of her fugitive pieces in verse we do not think much; but her plays and incidental prose pieces, which are scattered through this work, may be read with pleasure and advantage by all. The latter manifest in almost every line the acute and philosophic mind of their writer; and the knowledge of human nature displayed in the former, while it is surprising in a woman supposed to have led a comparatively secluded life, shows powerfully how thoroughly the intuitive perceptions of genius prompt the same conclusions in one mind that the light of experience leads to in another. As play-writing is growing in favor among us we would recommend to dramatic aspirants the perusal of Miss Baillie's introductory discourse as giving some hints upon the subject which may be very useful in such composition.

A fine engraving and excellent likeness of the venerable Bishop White—early and late the friend

of his country—has been sent to us by J. H. Colton & Co., 9 Wall street, where it is for sale. It is from a picture by Sully, the engraving by J. Sartan.

EULOGY UPON SIR WALTER SCOTT.—The address of Professor McVickar, on 7th inst. at Clinton Hall enchain'd a large and delighted audience for more than an hour. The orator gave a biographical sketch of his subject, in which he introduced many interesting anecdotes of the author of Waverley, not a few of which he had heard from the lips of the illustrious departed himself. With the general view of his life, there was ingeniously interwoven a rapid but comprehensive criticism upon all the writings of Scott. And this, unlike most criticisms, was by far the most interesting portion of the address. The learned professor gave the rein to his fancy, and instead of fatiguing his audience by cold and subtle refinings upon the beauties of his author, he brought them out in bold relief by servid and striking illustration—an illustration which was not the less happy from being in almost every instance derived from the sources it recommended. A number of beautiful instances, which struck us at the time, have since escaped our memory; but we can hardly recollect a figure happier in its effect upon such an occasion than that (we cannot remember the words) in which the orator assimilated the author of Waverley reclaiming incognito the sceptre of popularity which the author of Marmion had seen fade from his hands, to his own Black Knight, with beaver down and every cognizance concealed, vindicating with resistless arm his title to his own sovereignty. We confess, however, we should have liked this part of the address better, if it had not contained a slur upon him who so long supplanted Scott in the public favor; and we doubt not that there was more than one present who would willingly have splintered a lance even with so able an adversary, when the eloquent orator, forgetting the lines and lives of Prior, Swift, and Savage, alluded to Byron as one whose muse had first polluted the English language. The address, which we understand is to be published, will no doubt be sought with eagerness and read with avidity.

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SI D. K. MINOR, No. 33 Wall-street, New-York.

RAILROAD IRON.

The subscribers having executed large orders for the Canal Commissioners of Pennsylvania, as well as for several Incorporated Companies, have made such arrangements in Eng and, where one of the Partners now is, as will enable them to import it on the lowest terms. Models and samples of all the different kinds of Rails, Chairs, Pine, Wedges, Spikes, and Splicing Plates, in use, both in this country and Great Britain, will be exhibited. Apply to A. & G. RALSTON.

Philadelphia, Sept. 15th, 1832.

* They have on hand *Railway Iron Bars*, viz: 95 tons, of 1 inch by $\frac{1}{4}$ inch—200 do. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{4}$ inch—135 do. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch—500 do. 2 by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch—8 do. $\frac{3}{4}$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch—in lengths of 15 feet each, with 12 countersunk holes, and the ends cut at an angle of 45 degrees; 300 tons, of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch; with Splicing Plates and Nails, shortly expected.

This Iron will be sold duty free, to State Governments and Incorporated Companies, and the drawback taken in part payment.

229 3m

THE NEW-YORK FARMER AND HORTICULTURAL REPOSITORY is now published at the office of the Railroad Journal, by the present Proprietor.

The *Farmer and Repository* is a monthly publication of 32 quarto pages, on beautiful paper, devoted to Agriculture, Horticulture, &c. It has heretofore been published by Mr. Samuel Fleet, but hereafter, it will be published by the present proprietor, who pledges himself to make it equal to *any other agricultural paper published in this country*. On the first of January next, it will be enlarged to the size of this Journal, and printed on new type—when a small portion of its columns will be devoted to the subject of *Making and Repairing Roads* upon the *M'Adam* system, and to *Steam Carriages for Common Roads* with occasional engravings.

The terms are *Three Dollars per annum, in advance*. A specimen number, as it is to be published after the close of the present volume, will be published in a few days.

Persons subscribing for the ensuing volume previous to the tenth of December, and paying in advance, will be furnished with the November and December numbers of the present volume without charge.

** If any person should prefer to have it semi-monthly instead of monthly, it will be sent to them in numbers of 16 pages each, but the monthly form, with a cover of colored paper, will be continued to those who prefer it.

FALL ARRANGEMENT.

THE PATERSON AND HUDSON RIVER RAILROAD continues in operation from Paterson to Aquackanonk, which is within ten miles of the Ferries at Hoboken and Jersey City, and until further notice, a passenger Car will depart from the Depots at those places daily, (Sundays excepted) at the following times.

FROM PATERSON.	FROM AQUACKANONK.
At 8 o'clock, A.M.	At half past 10 o'clock, A.M.
1 before 10 do do	1 before 1 do P.M.
12 do M.	half past 3 do do
3 do P.M.	5 do do
half past 4 do do	half past 6 do do, or, as soon as the last stage arrives there from N. York.

ON SUNDAYS.	
At 8 o'clock, A.M.	At 9 o'clock, A.M.
half past 9 do do	10 do do
half past 12 do P.M.	2 do P.M.
half past 4 do do	half past 5 do do

Parties of twenty or more persons can be accommodated at either of the above hours with a private Car.

These villages have become remarkably healthy, and persons who wish to avail themselves of this rapid, delightful and safe mode of travelling, will now have a favorable opportunity afforded to them.

Distance 42 miles, average passage 22 minutes. Fare 18 pence—Children under 12 years half price.

By order. E. B. D. OGDEN, Secy.

The Editors of Newspapers who advertise for the Company will please to insert the above in the place of the former advertisement.

Paterson, October 1, 1832.

TOWNSEND & DURFEE, Ropemakers, having machinery for making ropes to any required length (without splice), offer to supply full length Ropes for the inclined planes on Rail-roads at the shortest notice, and deliver them in the City of New-York, if requested. As to the quality of the Rope, the public are referred to J. B. Jervis, Eng. M. & H. R. R. Co., Albany; or James Archibald, Engineer Hudson & Delaware Canal & R. R. Co., Carbondale, Luzerne County Pennsylvania.

Palmyra, Wayne County, New-York, 1st mo. 23d, 1832.

J. B. T.

PATENT, RAIL-ROAD, SHIP AND BOAT SPIKES.

THE TROY IRON & NAIL FACTORY keep constantly for sale a very extensive assortment of Wrought Spikes & Nails, from 3 to 10 inches, manufactured by the subscriber's Patent Machinery, which after five years successful operation and now almost universal use in the United States (as well as England, where the subscriber obtained a Patent,) are found superior to any ever offered in market.

RAIL-ROAD COMPANIES MAY BE SUPPLIED WITH SPIKES having countersink heads suitable to the holes in the iron rails, to any amount and on short notice. Almost all the Rail roads now in progress in the United States are fastened with Spikes made at the above named factory—for which purpose they are found invaluable, as their adhesion is more than double any common spikes made by the hammer.

All orders directed to the Agent, Troy, N. Y., will be punctually attended to.

HENRY BURDEN, Agent.

Troy, N. Y., July, 1831.

Spikes are kept for sale, at factory prices, by I. & J. Townsend, Albany, and the principal Iron Merchants in Albany and Troy; J. I. Brower, 223 Water street, New-York; A. M. Jones, Philadelphia; T. Janvier, Baltimore; Degrard & Smith, Boston.

P. S. Rail-road Companies would do well to forward their orders as early as practical, as the subscriber is desirous of extending the manufacturing so as to keep pace with the daily increasing demand for his Spikes.

J. B. T.

H. B.

[COMMUNICATED FOR THE NEW-YORK AMERICAN.]
METEOROLOGICAL RECORD.

DATE.	Thermometer.		Barometer.		WINDS.	WEATHER.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.		
NOVEMBER...1	67	44	30.15	29.95	SW—	Hazy—rain at night.
2	47	51	30.03	30.00	WNW—NW	Clear.
3	52	44	32.31	30.21	NW—SSW	Clear.
4	57	45*	30.15	30.03	SSW—SW	Rain.
5	61	53	30.09	30.07	NW—N	Rain.
6	62	47	30.05	29.93	NE—ENE	Rain.
7	50	45	30.05	29.91	WNW—NNW	Cloudy.
8	54	36	30.15	30.05	NNW—N	Cloudy morning—clear evening.
9	44	32	30.04	29.87	SW—	Fair.
10	62	38	29.90	29.73	WSW—	Clear.
11	56	42	29.82	29.75	SW—NNE	Cloudy.
12	53	42	29.97	29.85	NE—SE	Hazy.
13	66	44	29.83	29.61	SW—	Clear.
14	43	41	29.91	29.89	NW—	Fair.
15	37	32	30.31	30.18	NW—	Fair.
16	41	31	30.44	30.42	NE—WNW	Cloudy—rain.
17	60	36	30.36	29.94	NE—	Variable.
18	68	54	29.85	29.79	S—SW	Variable.
19	67	50	29.90	29.55	S—SSW	Cloudy—westerly gale.
20	40	37	30.30	29.76	W—WNW	Cloudy.
21	40	31	30.36	30.25	NE—	Rain.
22	42	40	30.10	29.66	NE—N	Cloudy.
23	47	38	29.82	29.75	WNW—	Cloudy.
24	43	36	30.10	29.50	SW—	Cloudy.
25	40	33	30.23	31.22	W by S—	Clear.
26	52	38	30.16	29.94	SW—	Cloudy.
27	58	47	29.99	29.59	W—	Clear.
28	50	43	30.06	30.02	WNW—SW	Clear.
29	52	41	30.14	30.03	W—SW	Fair.
30	51	43	30.10	29.65	Calm—	Cloudy—rain at night.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

ELEVEN DAYS LATER FROM ENGLAND.—By the London packet ship Ontario, Capt. Sebor, we are in possession of London dates of Nov. 3, and Portsmouth of the 5th inclusive. We make our extracts from the Journal of Commerce.

The reported capture of Don Miguel's fleet is not confirmed. There was an engagement between the two fleets off Vigo on the 11th Oct. in which both parties suffered considerable damage. On the side of Don Pedro 45 either killed or wounded.

PORTRSMOUTH, Nov. 3.—The difficulties with regard to the settlement of the Dutch question, apprehended by the interposition of Prussia in favor of the King of Holland, are removed. It is now understood that the King of Prussia is not only not hostile to the resolved measures of coercion of the two Powers, (France and England,) against Holland, but that they have his perfect concurrence.

The Convention ratified by the English and French Plenipotentiaries, has been ratified by the French Government, and was returned on Saturday, clothed with the necessary formality of an international contract. The conditions of this convention are drawn up with precision.

The two rival governments were required to evacuate by the 2d inst. all the places which they respectively occupy in the territories of each other; or, in other words, Belgium was required to surrender Venloo, and Holland Antwerp. If they refused, or if Holland did not consent at that date, the combined fleet was to sail to blockade the Dutch ports; and if by the 12th November, Antwerp is not surrendered, the French army will then enter Belgium, and commence its march towards that city on the 15th.

LONDON, Oct. 31.—We announced yesterday morning, exclusively, the arrival of Admiral Villeneuve, and a French squadron of five ships of war, from Cherbourg, at Spithead, and at the same time showed, by a summary of the Parisian Ministerial papers of Sunday, received also by express, what were the purposes to which this armament was destined by the French Government. These two pieces of intelligence, combined with the already known intentions of our government, appear to leave no doubt of the now settled determination of the two Cabinets to bring the long pending alterations between the Kings of Holland and Belgium to a close, by compelling them, whether they will or no, to a speedy if not immediate compromise of their respective claims.

LONDON, Nov. 3.—By the arrival of the steam

packet which left Rotterdam on Wednesday last, 31st Oct. we have not as yet been made acquainted with the final decision of the Court of the Hague, as to the retention or surrender of Antwerp—its retention by force, or its surrender without a struggle. The time for announcing this decision expired yesterday, (2d inst.) and therefore, if that decision conveys an assent to the proposition of England and France, it cannot be long delayed. The steamboat which carried over the last despatches from the British Government to Holland, remained at Helvoetsluis for the answer.

ROTTERDAM, Oct. 26.—Among the measures for putting our second line of defence in a proper condition, preparations are making to inundate the country, if necessary. The works are already so far advanced that, in a very short time, a great part of the Province of North Brabant may be laid under water.

PARIS, Oct. 28.—The exultation of the Ministerialists is at its acme. The Convention between France and England, although not strictly a treaty offensive and defensive, has set the Court, the Cabinet, the Camarilla, and their creatures, out of their wits.

LIVERPOOL COTTON MARKET, Oct. 31.—A limited demand; the sales amount to 1500 bags. 29th, a good demand; 2000 bags sold without any alteration in price. 27th, sales of the week have been limited, at a decline generally of 3d.

Nov. 1.—The sales of cotton to-day amount to only 800 bales.

LIVERPOOL, Oct. 30.—Indian corn has been sold at 28s. per 580 lbs. Sour flour in bond is inquired for at 15s. a 16s. In wheat there is a fair trade.

LONDON, Oct. 30.—For foreign sugars there is but little demand. Coffee very heavy. Sales St. Domingo at 54s.; 1600 bags Havana were brought forward, worth at the late highest price 68 a 70s., and all taken at 53s. a 64s. and afterwards sold at that price.

LATEST FROM MEXICO.—By the Virginia, we have received Vera Cruz papers to Nov. 16th, inclusive.

General Pedraza, who had been invited by Santa Anna to return from the United States and assume the administration of the government, arrived at Vera Cruz Nov. 8th, and was received with the greatest enthusiasm.

General Santa Anna, who at the date of our last account was besieging the capital with 8000 men, (now stated at 15,000,) had raised the siege, and was marching in pursuit of Bustamante, in order to decide the contest without the necessity of an assault upon the city. There is no doubt but ere this, the Bustamante party is completely put down.

Flour was \$50 per barrel in Vera Cruz, and provisions of all kinds very scarce. Wood scarce and high.—[Jour. Com.]

MARRIAGES.

Lieut. I. S. Sterett, (U. S. N.) to Miss Jane S., daughter of I. Smith Hollins, both of Baltimore. At Norfolk, Dr. James Cornick, of the U. S. N., to Miss Catharine B., oldest daughter of Burwell B. Moseley, Esq. of Prince Anne County, Va.

DEATHS.

Tuesday, James Joseph Macneven, eldest son of Dr. Macneven; aged nineteen years. December 12th, after a long illness, Charity Beatty.

Friday evening, Dec. 7, of a lingering illness, Charles Anthony Girard, of Versailles, France.

On the 9th inst. at the residence of his son near Sing Sing, Dr. M. Hale, surgeon of the present and revolutionary armies of the United States.

WEEKLY REPORT OF DEATHS.

The City Inspector reports the death of 90 persons during the week ending on Saturday last, Dec. 8th, viz.:—18 men, 21 women, 32 boys, and 23 girls—of whom 25 were of the age of 1 year and under, 10 between 1 and 2, 7 between 2 and 5, 1 between 5 and 10, 6 between 10 and 20, 14 between 20 and 30, 10 between 30 and 40, 3 between 40 and 50, 9 between 50 and 60, 2 between 60 and 70, 2 between 70 and 80, and 1 between 80 and 90.

Diseases: Apoplexy 1, burned or scalded 1, childbed 2, cholera morbus 1, consumption 23, convulsions 7, dropy 4, dropy in the chest 2, dropy in the head 8, drowned 1, fever 1, fever, remittent 3, fever scarlet 3, hives or croup 3, inflammation of the bowels 2, inflammation of the brain 1, inflammation of the chest 1, inflammation of the liver 2, intemperance 2, marmasmus 1, old age 2, paley 1, peripneumony 2, small pox 2, sprue 1, still-born 4, sudden death 1, tumour 1, whooping cough 2.

ABRAHAM D. STEPHENS, City Inspector.

THE AMERICAN RAILROAD JOURNAL, AND ADVOCATE OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, has attained a circulation which ensures its permanence. The approbation with which it has been received by its present subscribers, since its commencement in January last, and the desire of all who subscribe at this late period of the volume to possess the numbers from its commencement, is a sufficient guarantee for the editor to encounter an increased expenditure in its publication. Such, indeed, has been the approbation with which it has been received, particularly by those connected with, or interested in, Railroads, as well as by Gentlemen connected with the Press throughout the country, that the Editor is happy to be able to say, that, on the commencement of the second volume, (1st January, 1833,) it will be presented to its Patrons very much improved in its appearance, and increased in value.

As soon as its patronage will warrant the expense, *another*, and, as the Editor believes, a very important, department will be added to it.

As soon as the subscription list shall amount to *fifteen hundred*, (which we hope will be very soon, and if its present subscribers would each induce *one* of their friends to subscribe, and send *six*, instead of *three dollars*, *in advance*, for the *second* volume, it would greatly exceed that number,) a *MECHANICS'* department will be added, in which at least *one half* of the best articles published in the London Mechanics' Magazine, with *THEIR ENGRAVINGS*, will be re-published in the Railroad Journal, when it will assume, in addition to its present title, "*MECHANICS' MAGAZINE*." To enable us, however, to encounter this additional expense of more than one thousand dollars, our subscribers will perceive the necessity of remitting three dollars, in advance, and *free of postage*. The first number of the next volume will be got up in accordance with the above proposal, at a very heavy expense for engravings, and forwarded to all its subscribers, and to other gentlemen who we may suppose likely to approve of such an undertaking,—who are respectfully requested to consider the advantage and the *economy* of such a publication to the mechanics of this country.

** All communications for the above-named Journal may be addressed, *free of postage*, to the Editor—

D. K. MINOR,
35 Wall street, New-York.